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CONTENTS

Editor's Note

Action Research . Practitioner's Privilege	C.G. Venkatesha Murthy	5
---	------------------------	---

Teacher's Role in Curriculum Design and Delivery	M.S. Khaparde	19
---	---------------	----

*Effectiveness of Competency-Based Teacher Training Strategy	Sukhwant Bajwa	30
---	----------------	----

An Appraisal of the Educational Thoughts of J. Krishnamurti	Parmjit Kaur	39
--	--------------	----

Privatisation of Secondary Education	J.P. Mayani J.A. Ramanuj	44
--------------------------------------	-----------------------------	----

Rethinking Professional Development of Teachers: <i>Demands and Desires</i>	V. Ramadas	50
--	------------	----


Evaluating Answer Scripts	Mamta Agarwal	61
---------------------------	---------------	----

Children with Behaviour Disorders in Normal Schools : <i>Teacher Preparation and Efficiency Parameters</i>	G. Lokanadha Reddy R. Jayaprabha	70
---	-------------------------------------	----

Guidance and Counselling for Vocational Education in Schools	S.P. Anand	80
---	------------	----

Effective Integrated Teaching Programmes : <i>Collaborative Consultation Skills for Teachers</i>	Umesh Sharma	91
---	--------------	----

Book Review		103
-------------	--	-----



Gandhiji's Talisman

I will give you a talisman. Whenever you are in doubt or when the self becomes too much with you, apply the following test:

Recall the face of the poorest and the weakest man whom you may have seen and ask yourself if the step you contemplate is going to be of any use to him. Will he gain anything by it? Will it restore him to a control over his own life and destiny? In other words, will it lead to Swaraj for the hungry and spiritually starving millions?

Then you will find your doubts and your self melting away.

M. K. Gandhi



Editor's Note

"Describing teaching a paradoxical profession," Andy Hargreaves and Leslie N K. Lo strongly believe "Today it is uniquely paradoxical profession. Paradoxical in the sense of all the jobs that are professional or aspire to be so, teaching is the only one that is now charged with the formidable task of creating the human skills and capacities that will enable societies to survive and success in the age of information. Teachers, in other words, are caught in a dilemma. They are expected to be leading catalysts of the informational society, yet they are also one of its prime casualties. This is a daily challenge for teachers themselves and a policy challenge for those who want to reform and improve teaching." Teacher preparation needs to give more thinking into the different roles a teacher needs to play to meet the new challenges in the informational society and to help the young learners learn how to learn. Papers in this issue of the Journal of Indian Education look into the various roles a teacher needs to play while transacting the curriculum in the classroom as also the roles in and out of the school. M S Khaparde brings out the 'Teachers' Role in Curriculum Design and Delivery.' Questioning the level of participation of teachers in the process of curriculum development, he probes into the level of participation of teachers in the development process and the special attention needed for curriculum delivery in different types of schools like the normal schools and the multi-grade schools, besides employing the technology in classroom for enriched learning. Sukhwant Bajwa makes an attempt to study the 'Effectiveness of Competency-Based Teacher Training Strategy' by looking into the development of general teaching competence and change of attitude towards teaching of pre-service trainees. The findings, while ascertaining the effectiveness of the competency-based teacher training strategy, show that neither the competency-based teacher training strategy nor the training model changed the attitude of pupil teachers towards teaching.

The need for effective continuous professional development of teachers becomes an imperative to take on the changes and the emerging trends in the field. To achieve an effective model of in-service education of teachers, V Ramdas advocates a rethinking of professional development of teachers. He proposes a kind of professional development of teachers where school based projects designed to recast teachers' learning have to be planned so that the professional development initiatives form a powerful means for the purpose of restructuring the organisation and the innovative ideas and strategies born in practice flourish across the system.

Umesh Sharma presents collaborative consultation skills as a major component for effective integrated teaching programmes for teachers. This would enable the teachers, special educators, parents and other professionals to work together for better education of children with special needs in regular schools. Teacher preparation for children with special needs is an area of debate as the schools are becoming inclusive. G. Lokanadha Reddy and R. Jayaprabha attempt to design the efficiency parameters for the teachers to interact effectively with such children.

The other papers in the issue take into consideration of the changing needs of the classroom teachers. C.G. Venkatesha Murthy in his article on Action Research devices a new model giving much privilege to the practitioner. Arguing that the education in school is not just theory, the author, by proposing this model, concludes that any practitioner has the privilege of undertaking action research if s/he wants to improve by being reflective. Thus, one's practice is the centrality of action research. Any practitioner ought to be concerned about one's efficiency and, hence, action research becomes one's professional partner. The question of privatisation of secondary education has been addressed by J.P. Maiyani and J.A. Ramanuj. Beginning with the question of what and why of privatisation, the paper goes on to explain how the secondary education could be privatised in terms of financing, sensitivity towards community and environment and industry-education interaction and community school interaction.

Mamta Agarwal makes an evaluation of the evaluation of answer scripts by stressing the need for preparing a marking scheme for an objective evaluation of answer scripts. The need to vocationalise school education has been a major issue of the policies, commissions and committee on education for long. The need for guidance and counselling for promoting vocational education in schools is taken up for discussion by S.P. Anand. Regretting that not much change has been affected in the state of vocational education since the National Commission on Education (1964-66), the author advocates, by quoting the *National Curriculum Framework for School Education - 2000* (NCFSE 2000), the need for both generic and specific courses (in vocational education) which have been to some extent accepted by the all stake holders of education. The paper on the educational thoughts of J.K. by Parmjit Kaur reflects on the thinking and mind of the philosopher who wanted 'freedom from the known'. Listing out the basic postulates of his philosophy of education, the author comments that Krishnamurthy's approach to education is self explanatory and self directing without any inhibition to any kind and deserves a fair trail.

The papers and articles in the issue will benefit teachers, teacher educators and researchers in school education.

Academic Editor

Reference

Hargreaves, A., Lo, N.K., Leslie (2000) The paradoxical profession. Teaching at the turn of the century. *Prospects*. Issue no. 1145 Vol XXX no 23, p 167-180

Action Research: Practitioner's Privilege

C.G. VENKATESHA MURTHY*

Abstract

In the present paper, the author makes an attempt to trace the origin and development of action research, and trying to portray different models on action research. The author also has proposed a model of his own based on McKernan's Time Process model. While doing so, the author has also attempted to explain his spiral model with different stages. The author believes that action research is a practitioner's privilege.

Keywords: Action Research Models, Action Cycle/Spiral, Reflective Practice.

Introduction

ACTION research has been a mid 20th century concept which has spread over different fields including education. It is still an evolving concept. It is still getting refined periodically. The development of the idea of Action Research is generally attributed to Kurt Lewin, a psychologist, a phenomenologist who in the immediate post World War period used it as a methodology for intervening in and researching the major social problems. Lewin maintained that through action

research advances in theory and needed social change might simultaneously be achieved. Action Research (AR), according to Lewin consisted of analysis, fact finding, conceptualisation, planning execution, more fact finding or evaluation and then a repetition of this whole circle of activities; indeed a spiral of such circles (Kemmis, 1982;13).

Lewin's concept of Action Research has been summarised by Argyris *et al.* (1985) as follows.

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1. It involves change experiments on real problems in social systems. It focuses on a particular problem and seeks to produce assistance to the client system
2. Like social management, more generally, it involves iterative cycles of identifying a problem, planning, acting and evaluating.
3. The intended change in an action research project typically involves re-education, a term that refers to changing patterns of thinking and action that are currently well established in individuals and groups. A change intended by change agents is typically at the level of norms and values expressed in action. Effective re-education depends on participation by clients in diagnosis, fact finding and free choice in new kinds of action.
4. It challenges the *status quo* from a participative perspective, which is congruent with the requirement of effective re-education.
5. It is intended to contribute simultaneously to basic knowledge in social science and to social action in everyday life. High standards for developing theory and empirically testing propositions organised by theory are not to be sacrificed nor the relation to practice lost.

Argyris (1993) summarises four core themes of Lewin's work as follows.

1. Lewin integrated the theory with practice by framing social science

as the study of problems of real life, and he connected all problems to theory.

2. He designed research by framing the whole and then differentiated the parts.
3. He produced constructs, which could be used to generalise and understand the individual case, particularly through the researcher as interviewer and his notion that one could only understand something when one tried to change it.
4. He was concerned with placing social science at the service of democracy, thereby changing the role of those being studied from subjects to clients so that help, if effective, could improve the quality of life and lead to more valid knowledge.

Lewin's ideas on AR almost immediately applied to education as well as social science more generally. It was the work of Stephen Corey at Teacher's College, Columbia University, however, in particular, his book *Action Research to Improve School Practice* (1953) that spread the word about action research into mainstream American Education (Hopkins, D 1998:46)

The Definitions

Action research has been defined as an approach to research that is based on a collaborative problem-solving relationship between researcher and client, which aims at both solving a

problem and generating new knowledge. It developed largely from the work of Kurt Lewin and his associates and it involves a cyclical process of diagnosing a change situation or a problem, planning, gathering data, taking action and then fact finding about the results of that action in order to plan and take further action. The central feature of action research is that it uses a scientific approach to study the resolution of important issues together with those who experiences these issues directly (Coghan & Brannick, 2001)

According to Robert Rapoport (1970), 'Action Research aims to contribute both to the practical concerns of people in an immediate problematic situation and to the goals of social science by joint collaboration within a mutuality.'

According to Stephen Kemmis, (1983), 'Action Research is a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social (including educational) situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of (a) their own social or educational practices, (b) their understanding of these practices and, (c) the situations in which the practices are carried out. It is most rationally empowering when undertaken by participants collaboratively, though it is often undertaken by individuals and sometimes in cooperation with outsiders. In education, action research has been employed in school-based curriculum development, professional development,

school improvement programmes and systems planning and policy development.' According to Dave Ebbutt (1985), Action Research is the way groups of people can organise the conditions under which they can learn from their own experiences. John Elliot (1991: 61) defines action research as 'the study of social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it.' He further laments that 'Action Research aims at feeding practical judgements in concrete situations, and the validity of the "theories", or hypotheses it generates depends not so much as 'scientific' tests of truth, as on their usefulness in helping people to act more intelligently and skillfully. In action research, "theories", are not validated independently and then applied to practice. They are validated through practice.'

The present author defines action research as a problem-solving approach. It helps a practitioner to perceive, understand and assess the situation, which is causing dissatisfaction and it further facilitates a systematic analysis of possible reasons for the cause of dissatisfaction. Once this is done successfully, different alternative solutions can be planned, tried out to solve the problem or transform the dissatisfactory level to a satisfactory level. Thus, it is a management concept.

Indeed, action research is possible if a practitioner wants to be reflective. While commenting on Reflective

Teachers, Ross, Bondy and Kyle, (1993) opine that 'Reflective Teachers are never satisfied that they have all the answers. By continually seeking new information, they constantly challenge their own practices and assumptions. In the process, new dilemmas surface and teachers initiate a new cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting.' Reflective practice is the centrality of action research. Ideally, all teachers need to be reflective practitioners. Teachers also need to become autonomous practitioners. Only then, action research will become relevant to them. In this context, Lawrence Stenhouse (1984:69) described the ideal role of the teacher as follows. "Good teachers are necessarily autonomous in professional judgement. They do not need to be told what to do. They are not professionally the dependants of researchers or superintendents of innovators or supervisors. This does not mean that they do not welcome access to ideas created by other people at other places or in other times. Nor do they reject advice, consultancy or support. But, they do know that ideas and people are not of much real use until they are digested to the point where they are subject to the teacher's own judgement. In short, it is the task of all educationists outside the classroom to serve the teachers, for only teachers are in the position to create good teaching."

It is desirable to distinguish between action research and other practices. Wortley (2000) writes, "There

is much debate in the literature as to what distinguishes action research from other practices." As Dick and Swepson states, "Action research and some forms of practice are in some ways very similar. Both are often directed towards the achievement of change. Both are qualitative and often participative. Both tend to be flexible and cyclic" (1994 p. 4). However, despite these similarities, there are characteristics and criteria that differentiate an action research project from everyday practice. Most definitions of action research focus upon the themes of "empowerment of participants; collaboration through participation; acquisition of knowledge; and social change" (Masters, 1995 p. 2). While it is understood that these are important values underlying action research, they are often also incorporated into everyday practice. In contrast, the equally common phrases of systematic inquiry, critical reflection and strategic action are frequently reserved specifically for action research. Thus, it would appear that action research differs from everyday inquiry in that it is a systematic and deliberate process. Kemmis and McTaggart write that to do action research one must plan, act, observe and reflect "more carefully, more systematically, and more rigorously than one usually does in everyday life; and to use the relationships between these moments in the process as a source of both improvement and knowledge" (1988, p. 10). In defining the concept of action

research one must be careful to include aspects of both action and research. There is a risk otherwise that action research can become a tool rather than a means of genuine critical reflection and social action (Drinan, 1991).

Action research has a distinct identity. However, while it has particular characteristics, action research is also a super ordinate term, one in which a variety of types and models are subsumed. Similarly, as action research has been distinguished from other methodologies, some have also differentiated between different types and models of action research. This could be explained by the inclusion and interplay between the dual dimensions of action and research. As Tripp (1995) notes that varying importance placed upon these two concepts can produce recognisably different kinds of practice. As said initially, Action research has evolved over a period of about 60 years where different models of which have also emerged.

Models of Action Research

There are different models of action research, which have emerged at different points of time. Grundy (1982) writes of these modes of action research: technical, practical and emancipatory. Holter and Schwartz-Barcott (1993 p. 301) also identify three approaches, the technical collaborative approach, a mutual collaborative approach and an enhancement approach. Other types

and models of action research have also been suggested by McKernan (1993) and Mc Cutcheon and Jurg (1990) (cited in Masters, 1995). More recently, Hart and Bond (1995 p. 40) have developed an action research typology. This describes four types of action research: experimental, organisational, professionalising and empowering. It would seem that the majority of these types could be placed upon a continuum. This serves to illustrate that while there are different forms of action research, they differ not in methodology but in the underlying assumptions and views of the participants (Grundy, 1982).

The point of distinguishing a number of different approaches within action research is to enable the appropriate type, to be chosen for the present context. As Stringer (1995) states, often in community settings there is a conflict for the facilitator-researcher to meet the requirements of both the participants/consumers and the professionals/managers. Thus, the choice of an approach is often a political compromise. However, it would seem that once a consensus is reached and an action research project begins, there is a greater scope for movement and a chance of shift in orientation (Hart and Bond, 1995).

In examining the orientations of the various types/models of action research, it has already been stated that the primary difference relates to the underlying assumptions and worldviews of the participants (Grundy, 1982). While it is these assumptions

that cause the variations in the application of the methodology, it is not in the methodology itself that they differ. The degree of collaboration and the nature of participation are one of the distinguishing criteria in defining the type of action research employed. This is evident not only in relation to actions but in relation to labels. The ways in which research roles are defined alter as one moves across the continuum of action research types.

As Drinan writes, "Action research conducted in its true spirit will change situations and organisations" (1991, p. 93). As a paradigm, it demands practitioner discipline and knowledge. Yet, as Stringer notes, often people in positions of authority fail to grasp that others "may interpret the situation and or the significance of the problems in ways very different from their own" (1996, p. 43). This ignorance unfortunately can inhibit true change.

Kurt Lewin's concept of action research was quickly absorbed in social sciences and education. In education the credit goes to Stephen Corey, who introduced the concept of action research in teaching-learning context through his popular and pioneer publication *Action Research to improve school practice* in 1953. The action research waves moved from Teacher's College, Columbia University to the entire American education and it entered different parts of the world.

In education context, the combination of action and research components has a powerful appeal for teachers. In the UK, Lawrence

Stenhouse was the pioneer in establishing the relationship between action research and the concept of teacher as a researcher. Soon John Elliot popularised action research as a method for teachers doing action research in their own classrooms through the 'Ford Teaching Project' and established the classroom Action Research Network.

During early 80s, Stephen Kemmis considerably refined and formalised the concept and process of action research as applicable in education. Kemmis and his colleagues in Deakin University, Australia produced a number of publications and materials on Action Research. Kemmis, in his article, has elaborately traced the developments of action research since Lewin and established its own character. In his *Action Research Planner*, Kemmis portrays a sequential programme. Kemmis and Mc Taggart (1988:14) have jointly proposed a model.

Dave Ebbutt has provided a model in 1985, a variation on Kemmis' model. Ebbutt claims that spiral is not the most useful metaphor. Instead, the most appropriate way to conceive the process of action research is to think of it as comprising a series of successive cycles each incorporating the possibility for the feedback of information within and between cycles. Such a description is not nearly so neat as conceiving of the process as a spiral, neither does it lend itself quite so tidily to a diagrammatical representation. An idealised process of educational action research,

according to Ebbutt, can be more appropriately represented by a model.

During 1991, John Elliot came out with his own model taking the cue from Kemmis, where Elliot has proposed an elaborate model using different cycles. In Elliot's model, he argues that, 'Reconnaissance' should involve analysis as well as fact finding, and should constantly recur in the spiral of activities, rather than occur only at the beginning. Implementation of an action-step is not always easy, and one should not proceed to evaluate the effects of an action until one has monitored the extent to which it has been implemented.

McKernan J, has also suggested a model during 1991, which is a time-process model, where he explains a set of activities in every cycle. The cycles are shown horizontally. In his model, he emphasises on the importance of not allowing an action research 'problem' to become too rigidly fixed in time, and of rational problem solving and democratic ownership by the community of researchers (Hopkins, 1998).

The Model Advocated by the Author

The author advocates a model, which is based on McKernan's time-process model. According to this model, different stages of action research are elaborately given. It can be shown in the diagrammatic form as given on page 12.

In the given model, different steps involved are as follows;

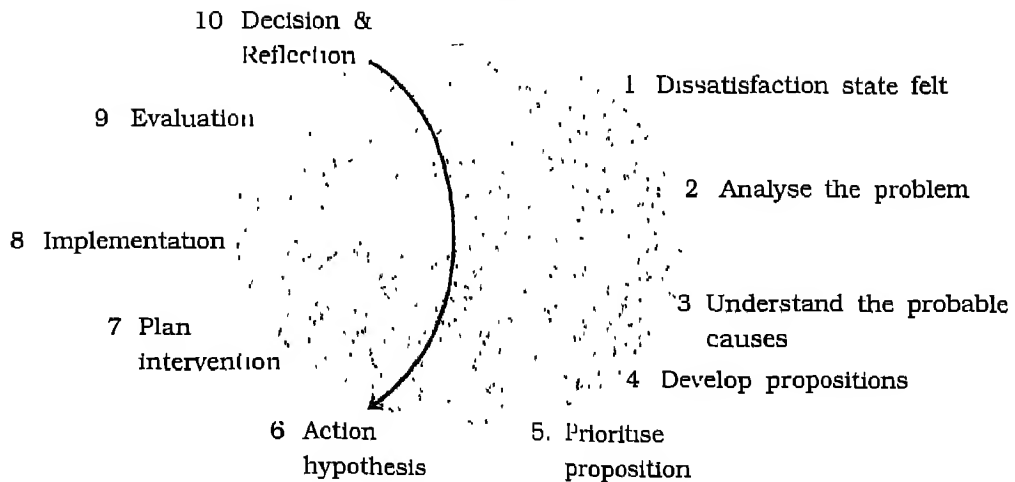
1. Perception of the problem/dissatisfaction
2. Analysis of the problem/dissatisfaction
3. Understanding the probable causes
4. Developing propositions
5. Prioritising a proposition
6. Developing an action hypothesis
7. Planning an intervention
8. Execution of an intervention
9. Evaluation of the intervention
10. Decision making (Reflection, explanation and understand action).

The present model is proposed keeping in view the school-education context. Education is practice not just theory. So, every teacher is a practitioner. Any practitioner can undertake action research and, hence, a teacher can undertake action research. For undertaking action research, a practitioner has to be sensitive to his/her profession. If one is complacent about everything going on ground, then perhaps, one does not have any scope for action research. If one is dissatisfied with any aspect of one's practice there is a scope for action research. Therefore, no one can compel anyone to undertake action research. One undertakes it if one feels to bring in some change in his/her practice. Under these premises, the following steps are explained and elaborated.

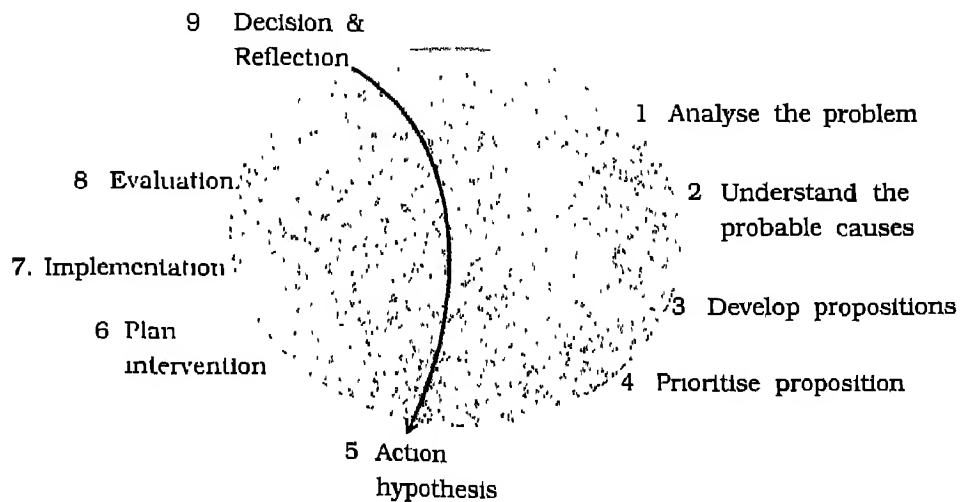
(1) Perception of the Problem/Dissatisfaction: If a practitioner is dissatisfied with certain aspects of one's practice, she/he should be sensitive to them. Or there may be a problem and the practitioner needs to be sensitive to the problem. Only then undertaking action research becomes possible.

Proposed Model of ACTION RESEARCH

SPIRAL 1



SPIRAL 2



SPIRAL 3

Let us take an example to explain the same. A teacher is teaching English to Class V students. He is uncomfortable to note that in spite of his best efforts, his students are not able to pronounce words in English satisfactorily. He feels that he needs to do something about it because he is convinced that it is his responsibility to develop good pronunciation among his students. This is an indication that he feels there is a problem and he is dissatisfied with the situation. On the contrary, if he were to be complacent about whatever is happening around him, perhaps, there would not have been a scope for action research. So, this is the first step.

(2) Analysis of the Problem/

Dissatisfaction: Having felt that he is dissatisfied, he needs to analyse the dissatisfied state or the problem from all possible angles. For this, he must objectively be able to explain the dissatisfaction:

Taking the same example, here, at this stage, the teacher must be capable of understanding by way of asking himself:

- (a) how many students are unable to pronounce English words,
- (b) are there any specific kinds of problems associated with this,
- (c) are there any specific patterns of errors they have in expression, etc., and based on the answers he gets, he has to move to the next step.

(3) Understand the Probable Causes:

For the kind of dissatisfaction/problem, he has to start listing all possible causes from different perspectives. These causes are only possible and plausible causes. These causes are based on his intelligent guesswork too

In the our example context, some of the causes a teacher could think of could include the following:

1. Lack of training
2. Lack of support in the family
3. First generation learner
4. Friends in school do not speak in English
5. Teachers do not encourage students to speak in English
6. Children speak only in Kannada/Telugu/Malayalam/Hindi in their community
7. Inadequate training in the lower classes
8. Lack of opportunities in school
9. Second grade given in English in school
10. Lack of English listening opportunities
11. Not interested in English
12. Students ridicule if someone attempts to speak in English
13. A feeling that without English also one can survive well
14. Diffidence in pronouncing English.

The above are some hypothetical causes, attempted to be listed. All these causes are to be noted down as assorted points.

(4) Development of Propositions: 'A proposition is a tentative theory, which is developed, based on different causes and their interrelationships.' The tentative theory developed will help us to plan other set of activities. So, this will serve as a theoretical base. Based on different causes, different propositions can be developed. Sometimes, there could even be only one proposition too

In our example, which we are carrying, we can develop three propositions based on causes that relate to individual factors, school factors and family related factors. Let us develop and examine them.

Proposition 1: *(Based on individual factors)* Students are not good in their pronunciation perhaps because a majority of them are not interested in speaking in English, as they are diffident. This could be because they have no opportunities of listening to or speaking in English. Even if someone shows some interest, others ridicule it as a majority of them are Kannada/Telugu/Malayalam/Hindi speaking students. As a result of all these factors, students are not capable of speaking in English. Since they are not attempting to speak, their English pronunciation is poor.

Proposition 2: *(Based on school factors)* A majority of students are not good in their pronunciation perhaps because, their readiness to cope up with the present level is too low as their training in the previous classes are very poor. There are no opportunities provided in school

activities, either inside the classroom or outside, to speak or listen to in English. The whole school ambience looks as though English is given a second or third grade. On the cap of it, teachers also do not speak in English, and so are students. As an English teacher, I also am not encouraging students to speak in English. In such a context, it is natural that the students also do not speak in English in school. Thus, perhaps, the school factor is playing a very important role in distancing students from speaking good English.

Proposition 3: *(Based on family factors)* Perhaps, at the family front, as some of the students are first generation English learners, there is obviously no support from parents. As the students come from Kannada/Telugu/Malayalam/Hindi speaking families, their chances to listen to English is almost nil. Therefore, when they have no access to, and emphasis on, English their plight is quite understandable.

The above three propositions attempt to explain how certain situations are coming in their way of learning English and pronunciation satisfactorily.

(5) Prioritisation of Proposition: It is a process of selecting one proposition among many. This needs to be done keeping in view certain points in mind. They include:

- (a) What a practitioner can attempt?

- (b) What is a priority issue according to the practitioner?
- (c) What is the larger interest of the group?

In the above example, perhaps an intelligent practitioner would prioritise the second one, as it is a domain where a practitioner can do something concretely. He/she has the legitimate responsibility to bring in change. So, the second proposition is prioritised.

(6) Developing an Action Hypothesis:

An action hypothesis is 'one which contains the intended action/intervention potentially capable of changing the dissatisfaction/solving the problem/minimising the intensity of the problem'. Therefore, an action hypothesis intends a change. It is to be developed based on the prioritised proposition. Further, only one action hypothesis is to be developed in every spiral.

An example of an action hypothesis in the above context could be *"Creation of more opportunities and encouragement will enhance the motivation levels of students to use English more and more."*

(7) Planning of the Intervention:

Once an action hypothesis is formulated, what intervention has to be executed needs to be planned. It covers all aspects of 'What' 'Who' 'How' and 'When' of any intervention. It may cover in detail:

- (a) What is to be done as intervention?
- (b) How is it to be done?
- (c) When is to be done?

- (d) What are the precautions that I may have to take?
- (e) What are the resources, both men and material, which are necessary?
- (f) Who are the people who have to be collaborated? etc.

The planning has to be as elaborate as possible. But, there is no must that it should not be deviated. Planning definitely provides a direction. But, it should not become a limiting factor. Therefore, there has to be an attitude on the part of the practitioner to be open minded so that, if the situation demands a modification, one must be willing and open. Therefore, the practitioner must be capable of adopting a contingency plan too to meet any emergency or exigencies.

(8) Execution of Intervention: Here, the actual implementation of the intervention takes place. A good planning could take away all the vagueness of the implementation as all minor details are planned in advance. This will facilitate a focussed direction and will save time and energy.

While executing, the practitioner should have a schedule covering activities, men and materials. As per the plan they need to be executed, so that systematically certain evidences/data can be generated. All the tools and techniques that are planned are to be used with care and proficiency.

The collected data need to be scored, evaluated and treated qualitatively or quantitatively. This activity will be followed by the next

activity, i.e. evaluation of the intervention.

(9) Evaluation of the Intervention:

Evaluation is an activity of assigning a value judgement to a measured attribute. In the action research context, evaluation may cover the following:

- (a) Assess the worth or usefulness of the intervention in altering the dissatisfaction state/or in minimising the intensity of the problem.
- (b) Explain how comprehensive, dependable and relevant was the intervention
- (c) Assess whether intervention on the whole succeeded completely, partially or failed totally.

To do this, the kind of data/evidences one collects must be dependable and must be drawn from multiple sources.

(10) Decision (based on reflection, explanation and understanding the action):

Evaluation is made because, certain decisions will have to be taken based on them. Based on the evaluation, the practitioner first has to 'reflect'. 'Reflection' is the centrality of action research. Reflection is the process of stepping back from experience to process what the experience means, with a view to planning further action (Daudelin, 1996; Kolb, 1984; Raelin, 2000; Rigano and Edwards, 1998).

Reflection is critical link between the concrete experience, the

interpretation and taking new action. According to Raelin (2000) reflection is the key to learning as it enables one to develop an ability to uncover and make explicit to yourself what you have planned, discovered and achieved in practice. He further advocates that reflection must be brought into the open so that it goes beyond your privately held, taken-for-granted assumptions and helps one to see how knowledge is constructed. In action research, reflection is the activity, which integrates action and research.

Some of the following suggested questions may help in reflection.

1. What did I think was the problem? Was that all right?
2. Did the intervention bring about improvement to a satisfactory level?
3. Is there any scope for further improvement?
4. What went right and what went wrong?

Based on such questions, certain decisions will have to be taken. These decisions are based on the reflections made by the practitioner. The decisions may include the following suggested ones.

1. Should I terminate the intervention?
2. Should I move to the next spiral because the results yielded are not fully satisfied?
3. What kinds of planning needs to be made keeping in view the

present planning which did not help me fully?

4. How can I make my effective intervention a part of my regular practice?
5. What efforts and preparations are necessary to naturalise the tested strategy/ies?
6. What kinds of changes I have to bring in myself in order to naturalise the tested interventions?

Keeping in view the above guidelines, one can take a decision whether one can terminate or move to the next spiral. If one wishes to move to the next spiral, all the steps have to be followed afresh. If terminated,

one has to see how the tried out strategy(ies) can become a part of one's natural practice. After all, the primary beneficiary in any action research is the practitioner himself/herself.

Conclusion

Any practitioner has the privilege of undertaking action research if he/she wants to improve the efficiency of one's practice by being reflective. Thus, reflective practice is the centrality of action research. Any professional practitioner ought to be concerned about one's efficiency and, hence, action research becomes one's professional partner.

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Teacher's Role in Curriculum Design and Delivery

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Abstract

This paper establishes the significance of the participation of teacher in the process of curriculum design. Also, the curriculum, once designed, is implemented by the teachers and they may adopt different strategies for its implementation depending upon the classroom reality. The involvement of teachers in the design of curriculum develops a sense of ownership among them. As a result, they take all steps to ensure its successful implementation. The developments in the field of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) have brought about a paradigm shift in the methods of transaction or delivery of the instructions in the classroom. Effective use of technological aids and approaches encourages movement from teacher centred to learner centred approach allowing students greater autonomy and scope for exploration and creativity towards attainment of larger developmental goals. The technology-rich learning environment is characterised by collaborative and investigative approaches helping in integration of content across the curricula promoting conceptual understanding. The teacher and students become co-learners in the cooperative learning environments to benefit from the ICT classroom situation.

Keywords: Curriculum Development and Delivery, Teacher's Role in Curriculum Design and Delivery.

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THE success of any educational reform depends upon the quality of the teacher, which depends to a large extent on the quality of the teacher education programme. In this context it is imperative to build a national system of teacher education based on country's cultural ethos, its unity and diversity to facilitate the realisation of the constitutional goals and emergence of the social order which can prepare professionally competent and committed teachers to perform their roles effectively as per the needs of the society. Hence, the role of teacher is central in any educational system. The best curriculum, syllabi and text materials become ineffective if the teachers do not know how to handle them. Nearly all issues, whether related to goals, learning achievement, organisation of programmes or performance of the education system, involve an analysis of the role of teachers: their behaviour, performance, remuneration, incentives, skills and how they are used by the system. A perusal of the literature related to the improvement of curriculum indicates that there is a lot of stress on the need for the participation of a variety of resources in these efforts. Among those generally identified is the classroom teacher who is often referred to as the most important contributor and facilitator.

The teacher is the principal agent in implementing educational programmes and appropriately transacting the curricula in the classroom. He/she makes decisions

that determine the quality of learning experiences the pupils have in the classroom. The explosion of knowledge and advancement of technology have enhanced the role and responsibilities of teachers. The teachers have therefore to remain 'aware and awake' towards social needs and new developments. While it is essential that classroom interactions terminate in the achievement of the desired competencies in the pupils, it is highly desirable on the part of the teacher that he inculcates the spirit of inquiry and right attitudes to apply his knowledge to life situations, leading to the inculcation of the habit of life-long learning among his pupils. The learning process is no more restricted to *teacher talks students receive* concept. The teacher has to create a suitable congenial learning environment whereby the students can investigate, question, discuss and seek guidance for arriving at the appropriate solution of the problems. In the context of the role of the teacher in the Indian Education System, National Policy on Education (NPE-1992) states that "*The status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of a society; it is said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers. The Government and the community should endeavour to create conditions, which will help motivate and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines. Teachers should have the freedom to innovate, to devise appropriate methods of communication and activities relevant to the needs*

and capabilities of and the concerns of the community" (p. 25)

Jacques Delors Report, "Learning: The Treasure Within" (UNESCO, 1996) also emphasises that teachers are instrumental in the development of attitude positive or negative to learning. Teachers can awake curiosity, stimulate independence, encourage intellectual rigour and create the conditions for success as an agent of change; promoting understanding and tolerance that has never been more obvious than today.

Teacher's role is likely to become more critical in the SAARC countries for achieving the six EFA goals, as promulgated in Dakar Framework of Action (April, 2000). This paper discusses the role of teachers in curriculum design and delivery.

The Concept of Curriculum Design

"A curriculum is a definition of what is to be learned. The origins of the word are from the Latin 'curriculum', a racing chariot, from which is derived a racetrack, or a course to be run, and from this, a course to study." (Ross, 2000)

The term *curriculum* is used very widely in the literature to refer to instructionally related educational experiences of students. It encompasses educational philosophy, values, objectives, organisational structures, materials, teaching strategies, student's experiences, assessment, and learning outcomes (Leithwood, 1981)

A school curriculum consists of "all those activities designed or encouraged within its organisational framework to promote the intellectual, personal, social and physical development of its pupils. It includes not only the formal programme of lessons but also the "informal" programme of extra-curriculum activities as well as those features which produce the school's ethos such as the quality of relationships, the concerns for equality of opportunity, the values exemplified by the way the school sets about its tasks and the way in which it is organised and managed. Teaching and learning styles strongly influence the curriculum and in practice cannot be divorced from it". (Skilbech, 1990)

The terms "curriculum development", "curriculum planning", and "curriculum design" (together with the more antiquated terms "curriculum making" and "curriculum construction") are used more or less interchangeably to refer to the processes and decisions involved in specifying a curriculum plan. (The International Encyclopaedia of Education, 1994, p. 1322)

Curriculum design refers to as "the act of creating the curriculum in schools. This may involve the purchase of textbooks (one kind of work plan and curriculum) and/or the writing of curriculum guides (another kind of work plan), and neither may be well connected to the other. This presents a real problem in considering the 'alignment of curriculum' to the tests

in use. School officials like to believe that teachers follow curriculum guides when in fact the research reveals they are much more likely to be dependant upon the textbook as the actual day-to-day work plan or *real* curriculum. Curriculum delivery refers to any act of implementing, supervising, monitoring, or using feedback to improve the curriculum once it has been created and put into place in schools " (Fenwick, 2000)

Thus, curriculum does not mean only the academic subjects traditionally taught in the school, but it includes the totality of experience that a pupil receives through the manifold activities that go on in the school, in the classroom, library, laboratory, workshop, play-grounds and numerous informal contacts between teachers and pupils. In real sense, the whole life of the school becomes the curriculum, which can influence the life of the students at all points and help in the development of a balanced personality.

Teacher's Role in Curriculum Development

Before discussing the role of teachers in curriculum development, it would be worthwhile to discuss their roles in the curriculum planning — a stage preceding curriculum development. It has been noted that curriculum planning involves a series of steps, viz. specification of goals, setting curriculum objectives, choice of curriculum inputs reflecting these criteria and designed on certain specific scheme of studies, determining the

suitable transaction strategies and appropriate evaluation scheme. How are these steps actually determined in curriculum development in SAARC countries? Who takes the crucial decisions in this regard? What roles do the teachers play in determining the various steps involved?

In the process of curriculum development teachers play some significant role. But the most significant question is. How many teachers can actually participate in this process? Are the existing provisions for teacher participation in curriculum planning adequate and satisfactory? Under the existing arrangements, the involvement of practising teachers in curriculum planning processes is not significant. It is now recognised that the teachers should be given more extensive and central role in curriculum planning. Apart from curriculum planning, there are other stages wherein teachers are involved. These are curriculum development, curriculum delivery, and curriculum evaluation or review. The process of curriculum development (design) normally begins with the task of determining the specific objectives of teaching a particular course of the programme followed by writing content outlines; specification of relative weightages for different content items within a course; in terms of instructional time allocation, selection of the teaching-learning strategies such as classroom teaching, practicals, demonstrations, field work, self-study, group activities, etc.;

development of instructional material, reading material, etc; and specification of evaluation procedures. Here the question arises is — What role practising teachers play in these exercises? The preparation of curricular outlines entail experimental exploration in course formulation, teaching activities as well as in the evaluation procedures. The profession of teaching demands that every teacher should give serious thought to these issues and ensure their active involvement in the process of curriculum building. School situations and the community around offers tremendous opportunities to teachers to experiment, innovate and explore new areas of teaching.

Though from time to time teachers have been consulted in the process of curriculum development, most decisions about curriculum were taken by the experts without any real participation by teachers. It is only recently, due to numerous failures in curriculum implementation, that teachers are being associated with curriculum development and revision. They play important role in planning experiments for students, and producing teaching aids. It has been reported that in countries where participation was more inclusive and where more teachers were engaged in deliberative meetings and in production of materials, there was more genuine adaptation of the programme, and significant changes took place in the classroom. Therefore, teachers' participation is now

recognised as an indispensable part of the process of curriculum development. The curriculum demands active efforts on the part of the teacher to bring about more insights, greater knowledge, and increased enthusiasm in the pupils for learning. When teachers do not form part in the process of curriculum change, they would not be inclined in implementing the changes.

The overall responsibility of curriculum development in all countries lies with the Governments. In most countries curriculum development is relatively centralised. The countries like China, Fiji, France, Germany, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand, all report highly centralised curriculum development process. Though the final decision is made at the government level, the teachers, teacher unions and other stakeholders are consulted before and during the development process. In the countries such as Australia, France, New Zealand and Philippines, systematic inputs from teachers on policy development, training and reviewing curriculum are obtained.

In a centrally prescribed curriculum, usually available in terms of textbooks and syllabus, the involvement of teachers in the process of curriculum development is relatively low. In this type of curriculum, the units or divisions of knowledge are strongly bound which have a hierarchical organisation and transmission mechanism. In situations

where there is more autonomy granted to the schools, teachers are provided the opportunity and responsibility to develop his/her own curriculum, relate it to real life situations, design locally relevant activities, utilise locally available resources and encourage children to bring in their life experiences and relate them to the curriculum. The teacher determines the appropriate material that has to be transmitted and also the pace of learning. The teacher is, thus, a designer of activities himself. He/she is not only the implementer of the curriculum as in the centrally sponsored curriculum but its developer as well, in this case.

Teacher's Role in Curriculum Delivery

Curriculum delivery, after its development, is the most crucial issue in the entire process of curriculum management. The process generally involves teachers, students and contents of the curriculum. The contents to be learned by the students, are essentially contained in the textbooks, workbooks, etc. and it is the teacher's responsibility to teach these contents to the students. Curriculum delivery/transaction is a systematic process in which every component, i.e. teacher, students, material, and learning environment, is crucial to successful learning. This perspective of curriculum delivery is usually referred to as the Systems Approach to design instruction. The classroom teaching, which is a major

component of curriculum delivery, needs to be tailored according to the demands of the reality. In normal conditions, each classroom has at least one teacher with adequate teacher-pupil ratio. However, developing countries face the problems of multi-grade and large-classroom settings demanding different strategies of curriculum delivery. Also, the classroom teaching-learning is not merely limited to the use of talk, chalk and board. Rather, it is being supplemented by audio-video aids, and computer aided instructions. It would, therefore, be appropriate to discuss teacher's role in curriculum delivery in three sub-sections. Curriculum delivery in normal classrooms, Curriculum delivery in multi-grade contexts and use of Information Technology in classroom teaching.

a) Curriculum Delivery in Normal Classroom

In the beginning of the delivery process, the teacher seeks answers to many questions such as: What am I going to teach? How much matter should I include in a particular course unit? What are the contents for each session of the course? How to arrange the topics and sub-topics of the course? Am I going to follow a definite rule, procedure while transacting these topics? Have I allotted sufficient time for each of these topics and sub-topics? What type of methods and media am I going to use? What sort of instructional strategies and

evaluation procedures am I going to adopt for teaching these contents? The answers to such questions identify various roles of teachers in curriculum transaction. For instance, certain courses may demand that the whole transaction of the course be done only through fieldwork. Or, even within a course, it may be essential to adopt a judicious combination of different transactional modes such as practical work, classroom lecture, assignments, etc. for the effective delivery of the content units. It may be noted that the adoption of different modes of delivery places varying demands on the time and the other limited resources available. For example, transacting a content unit through classroom lecture may place very limited demand on time, human resources, etc. However, if the same is to be transacted through a practical exercise, depending on the specific objective, the resource requirement will drastically differ. Similarly, carrying out fieldwork will not only require longer duration of student's involvement but also change the role of a teacher significantly. Any instructional strategy that a teacher adopts in a classroom must conform to his/her personal style of teaching, and the model or models of teaching that he/she follows. For instance, a large group instruction will not appeal to those teachers who prefer to work closely with students. Hence, one should analyse the particular style of teaching and the model that he/she finds most suitable for his/her particular style. A teacher should be

much more open-minded and expand his/her efficiency by using different models of teaching rather than a single model of teaching.

As a catalytic agent, teacher structures the internal working of classroom and also gives direction to his pupils. The leadership style of teachers such as establishing relationship with students and setting the classroom communication channel, working procedures and rule enforcement supplemented with use of power denotes the classroom climate for student's learning. However, differences are observed in terms of the way they structure the classroom environment. A competent teacher manages the time available in school most effectively, recognises and provides for individual differences among learners, including children who are gifted as well as those who are weak; organises and manages teaching and learning through a combination of class, group and individual activities appropriate to the needs of learners, the level of study and the nature of the subject matter; provides a stimulating and effective environment for learning through good class organisation and display; and uses the environment and the children's direct experience as a resource for learning.

Several studies have shown that there is improvement in the student's achievement when the teaching is well organised and the teachers are absolutely clear about their objectives. Effective learning occurs where teachers clearly explain the objectives

of the lesson at the outset, and refer to them throughout the lesson to maintain the focus. The information of the lesson should be structured in such a way that it begins with an "overview" and the main ideas of the lesson are reviewed at the end. Joyce & Showers (1988) noted that the more effective teachers teach the classroom as a whole — present information or skills clearly and animatedly, keep the teaching sessions task-oriented, are non-evaluative and keep instruction relaxed, have high expectations for achievement and relate comfortably to the students — with the consequence that they have fewer behaviour problems.

Tangyong *et al.* (1989) identified some desired behavioural attributes of teachers, namely logical and flexible planning of work, encouraging children to think critically; better recognition of individual differences between children and the range of ability within classes; encouraging creativity in children; to link learning with living in the community; differentiating the needs and interests of older and younger children; and encouraging co-operation and mutual self-help among them.

According to Scheerens (1992) *structured teaching* is more appropriate to primary schools as it makes clear what has to be learnt; splitting teaching material into manageable units for the pupils, offering these in a well-considered sequence, giving sufficient exercise material; and regularly testing for progress with immediate feedback of the results.

Different kinds of materials are developed for the implementation of curriculum. The material support is primarily of two types: Textbooks and teaching/learning materials. In majority of the countries there has been a shift from teacher centred instructions to child centred learning. This also involves encouraging problem-solving, creative thinking, learning to learn, and activity based classroom programmes. "Pupil practice" is enhanced when teachers are sensitive to the learning styles of the pupils and where feasible the teachers identify and use appropriate strategies. In many cases this requires flexibility on the part of the teachers in modifying and adapting their teaching styles. A large number of studies have revealed that there is a strong relationship between high expectations among teachers and effective learning. High expectations correspond to a more active role of teachers in helping pupils to learn more and a strong sense of efficacy. Reinforcement is an important element of effective schooling. Good discipline in classroom helps in effective learning. Frequent use of punishment by teacher can create a tense and negative atmosphere affecting attendance and behaviour of the children and thus has adverse effects. On the contrary, praise and appreciation had a positive relation with pupil behaviour and to some extent increase their academic achievement and attainments. Another factor for low achievement is teachers' resistance to the innovations. The new

reform programmes demand from the teachers new teaching techniques, use of different instructional materials and use of different distinguished procedures. One important issue related to the teacher's role in the implementation of curriculum is learning assessment of the students. A variety of strategies are used to assess students' learning which provides feedback to the teachers with respect to the effectiveness of their teaching and also provides students and parents essential information about the student's progress.

b) *Curriculum Delivery in Multigrade Schools*

Multigrade schools contain students of different ages and abilities in one classroom under the direction of one teacher. They take a variety of organisational forms, ranging from a grouping of several formal grades/divisions under the direction of one teacher to a completely non-graded learning environment. Multigrade schools differ from 'traditional' schools where each class is typically made up of a distinct grade with its own teacher and a classroom.

Appropriate pedagogical training and materials are both critical for successful multigrade teaching. As regards approaches to classroom teaching, a multigrade teacher has to know and use effectively the various methods and techniques and strategies to ensure that every child in his or her multigrade class makes satisfactory progress. In the multigrade context

the teacher has to make use of greater flexibility in teaching strategies, create congenial learning climate, getting senior pupils to help junior pupils, make groups based on ability, engage some groups in co-curricular activities, adjust available time most effectively, etc. To build successful multigrade schools, teachers need to develop a wide repertoire of teaching techniques and classroom management practices. They require sufficient and appropriate instructional material and physical facilities and local and regional professional support. Students may receive less individual attention, and most often work independently. Student achievement in multigrade schools may be low in comparison to achievement in single grade schools if multigrade programmes are not supported with the required resources and if teachers are not properly trained. Given the limited facilities and other constraints, a teacher in multigrade context plays a very important and solitary role in making his/her classroom instruction effective. In fact, the teacher's job is not confined to the classroom teaching only. He/she has to play the role of an educator, a manager, a facilitator of learning process, a researcher in quality teaching and a community advisor. Roles of multigrade teacher are manifold, some of these are:

- *Curriculum Planning.* The teacher selects the items in the curriculum that need to be emphasised, decides upon the grading and sequencing of these concepts of

teaching items and finds out areas in other subjects where he/she can integrate them.

- *Management.* The teacher has to plan and arrange the classroom as well as the teaching schedule with the aims to maximise the results. This task also requires the teacher to use the services of his pupils effectively and mobilise the local people to the best possible extent to help in his/her work.
- *Classroom Transaction:* With the minimal facilities available to him/her, the teacher has to be creative and resourceful. He/she uses his/her discretion in such a way that he/she can give maximum attention to each pupil, minimise wastage of time and energy and get every child engaged as much as possible to some kind of learning activities. The teacher relates the subject matter taught to the daily activities of the children and their local environment. The teacher must always be effortful and keen to enhance his own competency and to improve his teaching style.

c) *Use of Information Technology in Curriculum Delivery*

The most important and challenging role of the teacher is the selection of the media or medium that he/she would like to use in the classroom. Teachers are often not able to decide by themselves on the selection of the media/medium. At the outset, this decision is highly dependant upon a thorough knowledge of; (i) what is

being taught, (ii) how it is to be taught; (iii) how it can be tested; and (iv) who are the learners? Research findings suggested a variety of teaching media, which are available, not only motivate the learners, but also make the process of teaching easier and more effective. These include both print and non-print media.

The developments in the field of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) have brought about paradigm shift in the methods of transaction or delivery of the context in the classroom processes. This requires proper technological skills and right attitude on the part of the teacher. The learners cannot derive optimal benefits from the Computer Based or Mediated Learning Resources if the teachers themselves are not trained properly and are not sufficiently motivated.

It requires a shift in teacher's responsibilities from merely teaching academic subjects to the teaching of social and interpersonal skills. The delivery of education via online courses is set to change the entire landscape of course development and control mechanism on delivery of Instructions. Thus, the role of teachers will evolve into one that combines the skills of a social worker, guidance and camp counsellor, and a facilitator providing one-on-one mentoring. Several studies have indicated that the Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) is more effective for individualised interactive instruction as it helps to improve

knowledge, understanding and application level capabilities of the pupils. Effective use of technological aids and approaches encourage movement from teacher centred to learner centred approach allowing students greater autonomy and exploration and creativity towards attainment of larger development goals. The technology-rich learning environment is characterised by collaborative and investigative approaches helping in integration of content across the curricula promoting conceptual understanding. The

teacher and students become co-learners in the cooperative learning environments to benefit from the ICT classroom situation.

To suitably harness ICT resources, the teachers will have to be trained suitably to cope with the change. Further, the appropriate use of modern technology in School Curriculum World reduces the workload of teachers. Thus, the role of teacher in ICT based instruction can be described as Facilitator, Synthesiser, Modeller, Co-explorer, Instigator and Helper

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Effectiveness of Competency-Based Teacher Training Strategy

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Abstract

The present study is conducted to assess the effectiveness of competency-based teacher training strategy in terms of (i) development of general teaching competence of pre-service teachers. (ii) change of attitude towards teaching of pre-service teachers. An intact sample of sixty teacher trainees from B.Ed. class was taken. Pre-test, post-test control group design was used. The sample was randomly divided into two groups. One of the two groups was randomly assigned as experiment group and other as control group. Experiment group was given training through competency-based teacher training strategy and control group through traditional teacher training approach. T-test was used to analyse the data. It was found that competency-based teacher training strategy was more effective than traditional teacher training strategy in developing general teacher competence. Neither the competency-based teacher training strategy nor the training model changed attitude of pupil-teachers towards teaching.

Keywords Competency-based Teaching, Attitude Towards teaching, Teacher Trainees, General Teaching Competence.

Introduction

MORE recently the student teacher has been acknowledged as active

participant who enters the socialising process not as an "empty vessel", but as an individual who, by virtue of his

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or her own experiences as a pupil, already has a detailed and elaborate conception of teacher's role. But induction into teaching is a challenging experience. It involves not only the acquisition of knowledge, but also the competencies necessary to translate that knowledge into action. Failure to cope with this situation is a threatening prospect for student teacher. Thus teacher training programmes and educational policy development need to include the requisite teacher competencies. This will provide functional and practical help for successful teaching.

Competency-based teacher education (CBTE) demands explicitness of objectives and of assessment criteria. This explicitness in itself has great potential for improving teacher education. Such programmes make explicit what the certified teacher is able to do. To successfully complete the programme, the teacher must demonstrate ability to meet specific objectives at specific criterion levels. Thus the teacher's portfolio of credentials in a genuinely competency-based programme does not include grades associated with general course numbers, generalised letters of reference, or checklists on personal interaction skills. Rather it includes a listing of the competencies she/he has demonstrated and a comparison of these with expected competencies or certification that criteria have been met.

As long has been known, the course lists and grades traditionally

used as an assessment of teacher's preparation are extremely nebulous in meaning. We delude ourselves if we consider an "A" grade as a valid sign of any particular ability or achievement demonstrated by a pupil teacher in the making. Even if course grades could be made valid and reliable, they still would suffer from two flaws that are inherent in this approach. First, the grades obscure variations within the expected competencies; strength in one competency may compensate weakness in another. The second inherent flaw is the use of norm referencing, which appears to greater or lesser degree in most traditional courses. An individual's grade is affected by the performance of others in his class or in the norming population with which he competes. When criterion referencing is used in competency-based teacher education programme, each student must meet the expected level of competence.

Explicit, competency-based objectives permit more effective evaluation, both of students and of the programme. The objectives of traditional programmes often are so general that they provide little direction for instruction. Adequate evaluation is impossible. Competency-based teacher education programmes on the other hand identify the objectives, the criteria, the performance indicators and criterion levels so clearly for the student that she/he can assess for himself/herself whether or not the objectives have been met

The importance of individualisation cannot be overemphasised. CBTE programmes promote self-pacing of students through modules or learning experiences. Each student proceeds at a speed consistent with his needs, achievements, and time commitment.

In competency-based teacher education programme, the emphasis is placed on exit rather than entrance requirements. Some efforts have been put in the field of teacher education to improve general teaching competence through micro teaching. Enos (1976) found competency-based teacher education trained teachers outperformed graduates of the traditional programme. Various research projects conducted by National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), Center for Advanced Studies in Education (CASE) Baroda (1974) and others have concluded that the trainees trained through micro-teaching acquired higher general teaching competence as compared to trainees trained under traditional teacher education programme. Yogender Kumar and Rattan Lal (1980) conducted a study on effectiveness of micro-teaching in improving general teaching competence of in-serve teachers. They found that there was improvement in general teaching competence after undergoing training through micro-teaching. Naik (1984) in his study found that there is no significant difference in the gain scores of general teaching competence of student teachers trained through

micro-teaching and conventional teacher training programme. Singh (1984) found that the student teacher trained using micro-teaching under the simulated conditions acquired better teaching competence than those trained under the traditional training method. Thakkar (1985) established that there was a significant positive effect of different micro-teaching skills upon the general teaching competence of primary teacher training as measured by BGTC scale. Singh (1985) found that there was no difference in the attitudes of the groups under the two modes, there were differences in teaching competence and role performance, the integrated group scoring higher than the traditional group. Dave (1987) found Miniteaching model of integration of skills (MMI) was superior to Summative model of integration of skills (SMI) and Traditional model of integration of skills (TMI) in terms of development of general teaching competence in student teachers. The teachers belonging to the MMI group did not attain significantly favourable attitude towards teaching in comparison with those belonging to SMI group. Cheng, May Hung and others (1997) concluded that both student teachers and beginning teachers perceived themselves as having higher competence in the classroom domain and lower in the school, community and professional domains. Chag-Huery-Por (1998) as a result of their study suggest that assessment of teaching competency from beginning

teachers should be systematically collected and used for establishing the validity of teacher's evaluation instrument. Studies in the field of teacher preparation programme have been done to develop general teaching competency through micro-teaching technique and effectiveness of this technique as compared with traditional training model. There is need to develop a comprehensive strategy to give the teachers in basic teaching competencies. It is also observed that most of student teachers have unfavourable attitude towards teaching profession. They prefer to shift to any other profession whenever they get an opportunity. The present study investigates effectiveness of Competency Based Teacher Training (CBTT) strategy in developing general teaching competence and also changing attitude towards teaching of pre-service teachers.

Objectives

To study the effectiveness of 'competency-based' teacher training strategy in terms of:

- (i) development of general teaching competence of pre-service teachers.
- (ii) modifying attitude towards teaching of pre-service teachers

Hypotheses

- (i) There will be significant difference in the mean achievement scores of general teaching competency between groups trained through

CBTT strategy and the traditional training model.

- (ii) There will be significant difference in attitude towards teaching between groups trained through CBTT strategy and the traditional training model

The experiment involved seventeen sub-competencies distributed over five basic teaching competencies.

Sample

In the present study, non-probability sampling technique was adopted keeping in view the nature of experiment. The experiment included providing training to pre-service teachers in developing general teaching competence through 'Competence-based teacher training strategy'. Therefore, intact sample was required. So, a sample of sixty student teachers from a college of education was taken. Since, the admission in different colleges is done on the basis of entrance test, so the results of above sample will hold true for the entire population

Tool Used

1. Ahluwalia's Teacher Attitude Inventory was used to know the attitude of pre-service teachers towards teaching.
2. Baroda General Teaching Competence Scale was used to gather data related to the general teaching competence of the student teachers.
3. Self-prepared 'competency-based teacher training strategy' was used

COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER TRAINING STRATEGY

Basic-teaching competencies taken →	Cognitive-based competencies	Performance-based competencies	Affective-based competencies	Consequence-based competencies	Managerial competencies
Sub-competencies → taken	(i) Writing instructional objectives (ii) Assigning home-work (iii) Developing problem-solving ability.	(i) Writing on black-board. (ii) Explaining (iii) Illustrating with examples (iv) Gaining and sustaining attention (v) Fluency in questioning (vi) Probing questioning	(i) Increasing pupil-participation. (ii) Recognising attending behaviour of students (iii) Developing social values in students.	(i) Giving reinforcement. (ii) Evaluating student learning.	(i) Managing supportive classroom environment (ii) Maintaining classroom discipline. (iii) Using teaching aids
Sets →	$S_1 = (i) + (ii)$ $S_2 = (iii)$	$S_1 = (i) + (ii) + (iii) + (iv) + (v) + (vi) + (vii)$ $S_2 = (iv) + (v) + (vi) + (vii)$	$S_1 = (i) + (ii)$ $S_2 = (iii)$	$S_1 = (i)$ $S_2 = (ii)$	$S_1 = (i) + (ii)$ $S_2 = (iii)$

The basic-teaching competencies having varying number of sub-competencies were included in the strategy. Different sets of sub-competencies were made to give training as shown in the table above.

The training strategy also includes: Ten observation schedules, two each for two sets S_1 and S_2 of cognitive-based teaching competency, affective-based teaching competency, consequence-based teaching competency and managerial teaching competency to ascertain that 80/80 criterion was met to demonstrate the sub-competencies by the learner

Design

Pre-test, post-test control design was used. The covariates namely, teacher attitude and class-room performance in terms of general teaching competence were measured prior to the experiment for all the student-teachers included in the study. The treatment were given in simulated situation followed by real situation. One basic-teaching competence was taken at a time.

Procedure

Following procedure was adopted for concluding the study:

A sample of pre-service teachers from B.Ed. class was taken. These pre-service teachers had no earlier experience in teaching.

Phase-I (Pre-testing)

In this phase the initial general teaching competence of pupil-teachers and their attitude towards teaching was measured. Each student teacher delivered a macro lesson of 35 minutes to the school students.

This lesson was observed on Baroda General Teaching Competence Scale.

Ahluwalia's teacher attitude inventory was administered to have the scores on attitude of pre-service teachers towards teaching.

Phase-II (Experimental Phase)

The sample was divided into two groups A_1 and A_2 randomly. Further groups A_1 and A_2 were assigned randomly one of the two strategies of training. One group (A_1) got training through CBT strategy and the other group (A_2) through traditional training model.

The student teachers of group A_1 were given orientation regarding the strategy prepared by the investigator. Model lessons were given and discussed. The peers acted as pupils during training period. One basic teaching competency was taken at a time. Every basic-teaching competency is divided into two sets. Student-teachers practised first set of a basic-teaching competency till criteria of 80/80 was met. It was followed by the practice on the second set of the same basic-teaching competence. Same

procedure was followed to give practice in all the basic-teaching competencies

Phase-III (Post-testing)

Final general teaching competence of pupil teachers and their attitude towards teaching were measured. Each student teacher delivered one macro-lesson of 35 minutes duration each to school students. Lesson was observed on Baroda General Teaching Competence Scale.

Diagrammatic Layout of the Design

	Group A ₁	Group A ₂
Phase-I	Baroda General Teaching	Baroda General Teaching
Pre-test	Competency Scale	Competency Scale
	Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory	Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory
	Group A ₁	Group A ₂
Phase-II	Training through	Training through
	Basic-teaching competency training strategy	Traditional Model
	Group A ₁	Group A ₂
Phase-III	Baroda General Teaching Competency Scale	Baroda General Teaching Competency Scale
	Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory	Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory

Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory was administered to get scores on attitude of student teachers towards teaching.

The data were collected following strictly the design and procedure of the experiment. The data consisted of:

- Pre-test scores and post-test scores on Baroda General Teaching Competency Scale.
- Pre-test scores and post-test scores on Ahluwalia Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Results and Discussion

The table below shows t-ratio between mean gain scores of experiment group and control group on general teaching competence and attitude towards teaching.

Variable	Mean Experiment Group	Mean Control Group	SE _D	t-ratio
General Teaching Competence	48.3	18.2	2.884	10.437*
Attitude towards teaching	15.2	13.5	3.879	0.438

Note: *Implies significant at 0.01 level.

The t-ratio is significant between experiment group and control group on general teaching competence. It shows there is significant difference in mean gain scores of the two groups. In the light of this result it can be inferred that student teachers have significantly better developed general teaching competence through

competency-based teacher training strategy as compared to traditional training model. The reason for such result may be that the experiment group was significantly better equipped with basic-teaching competencies. The development of basic-teaching competencies might have been deeply rooted in the minds of student teachers of experiment group and would have remained in superficial and fluid state in the minds of control group. The experiment group had superiority over the traditional training group in using the learnt competencies in an integrated form in normal classroom teaching. It may, therefore, be argued that 'competency-based teacher training strategy' is an effective strategy for developing general teaching competency among student teachers.

The t-ratio is not significant between experiment group and control group on attitude towards teaching. It shows the difference in mean gain scores of the two groups is insignificant. It can be concluded that neither 'competency-based teacher training strategy' nor traditional teacher training models have any impact on the attitude of student teachers towards teaching. The reason for such a result may be attributed to the fact that attitudes are more permanent and a few months training is too short a period to change the attitude of pupil teachers towards teaching.

Conclusion

On the basis of analysis of data, following conclusions were drawn.

- (i) Basic-teaching competency training strategy was found to be more effective in developing general teaching competency in pupil teachers as compared to traditional training model.
- (ii) Neither the basic-teaching competency training strategy nor the traditional training model changed attitude of pupil teachers towards teaching.

Significance

The results of the present experimental study are helpful for teacher educators to improve upon the present teacher training programmes.

In traditional training model which is in vogue in most of the teacher training institutions, basic-teaching competencies are not developed properly. It is not possible to develop general teaching competency without developing basic-teaching competencies. So as to say, basic-teaching competencies are pre-requisites to general teaching competency. Actually, general teaching competency is integration or fusion of basic-teaching competencies. Therefore, teacher educators in training colleges should prepare a teaching practice programme in such a way as to train pre-service teachers in basic-teaching competencies which will be helpful in developing general teaching competency.

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An Appraisal of the Educational Thoughts of J. Krishnamurti

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Abstract

In spite of our glorious achievements in the field of science and technology, there is chaos all around and man is nowhere at peace. Man lives in wrong relationship with people, things and ideas. Our education is lopsided, turning us specialists only in the field of study. Unless man understands himself all knowledge is meaningless. Right education, according to J. Krishnamurti, should bring forth integrated individual capable of dealing with life as a whole.

Keywords: Krishnamurti's Concept of Education

We are living in an age of science and technology and there has been an explosion of knowledge in physical, biological and social sciences during the last two centuries. Besides this vast scientific knowledge, we have a rich treasure of literature and scriptures at our disposal, the earliest one being nearly 5000 years old; but in spite of all this, there is chaos all around in our modern world. Man is nowhere at peace. We have witnessed two World Wars and several other

wars and battles; there are conflicts among nations, races and regions and there are also conflicts within the man himself. Poverty, starvation and crime belittle our achievements.

Who is responsible for the present crisis in our world? .. Of course, man himself ! God of nature gave us a beautiful world and a superior intelligence but we ourselves have made our life a hell, a mess. The tragedy is that we have misunderstood religion and misused science.

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Krishnamurti's observation is that crisis is the result of man's wrong values in his relationship to people, things and ideas. Unless man understands himself, his true nature — what he is, no problem can be solved adequately. No ideology, no religion, being separative in nature, has been able to solve our problems so far. Man is a complex unity of matter, life, mind and spirit. All that there is in existence also exists in man. Therefore, in understanding oneself, the individual understands the whole existence. Krishnamurti, being aware of this truth, considers 'self-knowledge' as the beginning as well as the end of all education. Krishnamurti (1969, p. 80) states:

"We have to inquire into the meaning of existence and the significance and purpose of our lives."

Krishnamurti's concept of education revolves around this theme. His concern is with the total man and with the total existence. God, for him, is just the totality of existence; God, love and truth are the synonyms.

It is also through right education that the individual can solve his own problems as also the problems of society. "Our present-day education is a complete failure because it has overemphasised technique. In our overemphasising technique we destroy man." (ibid., p. 18) Therefore, the need of the hour is to keep knowledge and values together; the scientific spirit and the religious spirit should merge into each other.

Krishnamurti proceeds with an open mind and does not follow any ideology, system or pattern. It is the ever-sensitive mind and the spirit of inquiry that can enable an individual to understand himself and his proper relationship to people, things and ideas and, thereby, resolve all conflicts, whether within the individual or in the outside society. No book, no 'guru' can give you readymade answers to your queries. If they do so, then these answers are of theirs, not yours. His teaching is in the true spirit of 'guidance', that is, enabling you to solve your problems yourself, independently. Cultivation of scientific spirit; creation of new values; understanding the self, the 'I', understanding the conscious and the unconscious minds; arousing sensitivity, intelligence (the capacity to deal with life as a whole, the capacity to perceive the essential, what is), intuition (which is highly awakened intelligence) and awareness (awakening to one's total psychological processes) are the basic postulates of his philosophy of education. He tackled every problem afresh and that was his message to everybody. He had no readymade answers to the questions put to him and would always say, "Let us find it out together". He never talked to the people from a superior position. His extraordinary sharp mind, inquisitive nature, coupled with truly religious spirit made him look at every issue with clarity and precision. In him we find a complete fusion of the scientific and the religious mind which

is the most difficult thing to achieve for an ordinary person.

Basic postulates of his Philosophy are

- All problems are there because of our partial outlook. We always respond with a prejudiced mind. Thought is nothing but response of the memory and memory is the experiences recorded in the brain cells — experiences of the race, ancestors and the personal experiences. Therefore, we should first 'empty', without any bias, prejudice or previous knowledge.
- Deconditioning is the first step towards knowing the reality, the truth and you may call it God also, God is not apart from truth, beauty and goodness.
- Unless that 'I', 'ego', 'self' vanishes from the scene we cannot understand reality and we can never be at peace.
- No ideology, no pattern, no system — whether of the left or of the right or of the centre — can solve our problems because their approach would always be one-sided, partial.
- All doubts can be removed by 'self knowledge'. Clarity of understanding is the bedrock of Krishnamurti's meditation, based on awareness.
- Analysis may be helpful in acquiring scientific knowledge but global view of reality, 'what is', should never be missed. See the tree, not only its branches and leaves; see the flower, not only its sepals and petals.
- It is more important to understand 'how we think' than 'what we think'. Follow your thoughts to the finish without condemning, justifying and identifying. Let there be no suppression or repression — just go on watching.
- Introspection is confined to conscious mind only. It cannot perceive the unconscious which comprises past experiences, even racial memories acquired through biological evolution. Self or knowledge does not mean knowledge of any Transcendental Self, mystical 'atman' but understanding the total mind in action.
- Intelligence and not intellect, attention and not concentration, 'choiceless awareness' and not introspection enable us to see the truth. Truth is not a matter of degree — either it is or it is not.
- Religion has nothing to do with dogmas, rituals and forms. Organised religion is nothing but 'frozen thought'. The important thing is the religious spirit and not any particular religion.
- All shackles are removed and all conflicts end when the mind is thus transformed through a psychological revolution which makes the mind quiet.
- Do not bother to change others, change your own self and that is the only hope to create a new culture, a new society where there'll be no conflicts, no problems, no divisions between man and man.

- Krishnamurti wants to create a new culture, a new society where there are no divisions of any kind among the people. They are just human beings and human beings only, but integrated human beings, nor specialists. Nationalities, organised religions and other institutions are also false barriers. Political, social, economic or religious revolutions cannot create this new society for they are always one-sided. The only revolution that could bring about this change is the 'transformation of human mind' through 'right education'; right education means: liberating the mind from all types of fear, from all types of prejudice and bias, making the body and mind sensitive; enabling the individual to understand himself; developing a perfectly healthy body; arousing love and compassion, cultivating humility, generosity, simplicity and austerity; and making each individual an integrated human being.

His concept of discipline, that is, freedom devoid of any fear, compulsion and even persuasion; his methodology of teaching, that is, scientific and independent enquiry coupled with intuition and inductive approach; role of teacher as a helper, as a co-researcher; and teaching physical, biological and social sciences subordinating them to the essential human values of love, compassion,

humility, simplicity, generosity and selflessness are not only psychologically very sound principles, but also place his philosophy of education on a very solid foundation. His whole approach is dynamic and as such is not a substitute for the traditional approaches as he himself claims it to be. He places us in the position of original discoverers and leaves the ultimate choice to ourselves. As such, his approach is everfresh and could never be a traditional one. There lies the beauty of it. Like existentialism, it is a bold attempt to look at the whole thing afresh in a new setting.

Krishnamurti's concept of education is comprehensive and broad-based: it comprises cultivation of good health through proper diet (vegetarian without drinks and drugs) and proper exercise (yoga, pranayama and games); cultivation of total mind, conscious and unconscious (no suppression, no repression), attention rather than concentration; intelligence rather than intellect (*how to think rather than what to think*); and cultivation of essential values (love, compassion, humility, generosity, simplicity and sensitivity) in an atmosphere of complete freedom (no fear, no compulsion, no persuasion). There is no aspect of education which he left untouched (even the delicate issues like sex education got his attention). We may conclude this discussion in his own words (1969, pp. 23 and 25).

"Education in the true sense is helping the individual to be mature and free, to flower greatly in love and goodness."

"The highest function of education is to bring about an integrated individual who is capable of dealing with life as a whole."

Krishnamurti's approach to education is self-exploratory and self-directing without any inhibitions of any kind and deserves a fair trial. Krishnamurti is a world citizen and world teacher — his teachings are not only relevant for India, but for the entire universe

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Secondary Education

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Abstract

This is the age of privatisation. Education, which is still considered a service sector, is no exception from it. Participation of private agencies is increasing. Privatisation of school education through private schools, charter schools, and for-profit school-corporations is taking fast place (cf. Cochran-Smith, 2000). These are unanswered questions about what it means to educate students for "the public good". The privatisation of education is a multi-dimensional issue. It can be debated from several points of view such as educational, economic, social, managerial, philosophical and moral. This paper deals with three basic questions about privatisation of secondary education: What, Why, and How.

Keywords: Privatisation, Secondary Education, Financing, Industry-education Interaction, Community-school Interaction.

What is Privatisation of Secondary Education?

PRIVATISATION of education means having lesser control and regulations of government. It refers to the expansion of private sector and reduction of public sector in education. The role-

shift towards privatisation reduces the role of government and increases the role of private, co-operative, and local government. The aspects of role-shift are decision and responsibility of money, administration and curriculum development.

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There are three types of education systems prevailing in India (1) Government, (2) Semi-government (Government-aided but run by private body), and (3) Self-financed (that run by private body without government's aid). All these three types of systems essentially require government's recognition and supervision. There are many education bodies, which do not have any recognition or supervision of government. We may call them Educational Non-Government Organisation (ENGOS). Nowadays, the ratio of number of schools of type Government, Semi-government and Self-financed is inversely increasing day by day. Self financed schools are increasing day by day. The function of curriculum development is no more in government's hand. Private sectors are developing curriculum of local and universal needs and offering openly to the people. Private schools are paying teachers according to their paying capacity and necessity. Educating our children in schools is now more expensive.

Why Privatisation of Secondary Education?

Education is both private and social investments. The gain is being shared by individual students, their family, employer and state. In the democratic country like ours, the share of individual is more important. Development of the country is based on development of an individual. The beneficiary should invest according to their gain and capacity. The sharing

arrangement varies considerably from country to country (Tilak, 1995). Privatisation of education is a global phenomenon and demand. But there are differences in the goals of privatisation. With respect to our country, there are considerable causes for privatisation of secondary education.

1. The government is suffering from scarcity of fiscal resources to provide infrastructure and develop quality of secondary education.
2. On one side of privatisation, it deals to large increase in efficiency when carried out properly and on other side it improves the quality level of service-conditions. It is because of this the cost-conscious officials favour privatisation (Joshi, 1999)
3. There is a huge unmet demand of expansion of secondary education. There are so many causes for the crisis. (a) our country is a developing country, (b) there is not enough population control, (c) a fall in the percentage of plan-expenditure on secondary school education by the government, (d) there is a rise in cost of material and equipments, and (e) internal in efficiency in administration are the main factors for the crisis.
4. The current education system failed to build up social and national responsibilities in human resource development. We are failed to develop triangular interactions between the society, industry and the secondary education schools.

- 5 In the absence of vocational-environment (i.e. education in the industrial environment) secondary school students can't be trained with necessary vocational skills. Work experience necessarily is provided in this transition period.
- 6 The secondary education is economically and socially productive investment (Joshi, 1999). It creates human resource for private, co-operative and public sectors. The quality of human resources should be monitored by them.

In short, privatisation of secondary education is necessary to overcome fiscal deficit, increase efficiency and fulfill needs of the secondary school infrastructure, building up of national and human responsibilities, and student's vocational development. However, as some experts have argued, there is another side of the coin of the privatisation of secondary school education. Any nation can develop on the basis of education only. It should be taken in account that education at secondary level is a merit service. It is the fundamental duty of state to support education system in substantial way. The state funding must continue more to be an essential and mandatory requirement (Bhogayata, 1999). The developed world has been entered in the era of secondary education for all. It is found in the phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll research that people believe educational improvement is more

important than deficit reduction (Elam, S. and Others, 1996).

How can Privatisation of Secondary Education be done?

Privatisation of secondary education can be done according to specific norms. There should be full efforts to bring useful changes. There are some dimensions in which efforts should be done, i.e. Financing, Sensitivity towards community and environment, industry-education interaction, and community school interaction.

1. **Financing.** There are private schools which derive most of their income from tuition fees. This pattern is by no means universal. In Ecuador (cf. Psacharopoulos and Woodall, 1985, p. 158) fees in private schools provide 82 per cent of total income, other private contributions 10 per cent and government subsidies only 8 per cent. Another source of private support for educational investment is donations or endowments. It is important for developed countries. In Bolivia this source provides 11 per cent of the income of private schools (cf. Psacharopoulos and Woodall, 1985). Third source of educational support is direct labour. Local communities may undertake to build a school or provide goods and facilities. There is an important source of fund in external aids. This includes World Bank loans and credit, and aids from bilateral and international

agencies. Some arguments are against this because these aids can be expensive to generate high local costs (cf. World Bank report, 1986) In spite of private contributors and external aids, particularly in some developing countries, most educational financial support comes from a wide variety of public, i.e. either central or local government sources.

2. **Sensitivity towards community and environment.** Shreeman Narayan in *Towards Better Education* says, "Integration and proper co-ordination between our development and educational plans require our most urgent attention" (cf. Mukalel, J , 1997, p. 9) Mahatma Gandhi wanted to orient students towards social responsibilities and character development process There is a need to convert every school interacting with community, where individuality is not damped but developed through social contacts and varied opportunities of services. Without involvement of community this type of shift cannot occur.

For any vocation, it is necessary to transmit all new members to the system of shared meanings, language, customs, values and ideas of vocational environment that we can say culture of occupation. This process of culture transmission is specific socialisation. Socialisation often occurs through a kind of cultural

osmosis. It is not a question of deliberate teaching, or of a conscious effort to learn Culture just soaks in, becoming how one lives (See Clabaugh G. and Rozycki E , 1990, p 116) The aspects of culture which are formal or technical in nature, often requires deliberate and systematic teaching over a sustained period of time Education can be performed better in the appropriate environment. In the past history of India, *informal* education system was functioning producing best products For example, we had a production of 'mukhamal-sari'. It was a best production in the world creating many job opportunities. Human development (learning, teaching and research) should go with and around these activities.

3. **Industry-education interaction.** The industrial and educational sectors, by and large, are functioning in isolation from each other. This hampers the development of both the sectors. Mechanism is urgently needed to facilitate and encourage linkages between them (Ansari, 2000) The government should create conducive conditions for greater involvement of industry' in decision-making, and for effective co-ordination of mutually beneficial programme of educational development. Both industry and education can benefit mutually from the sharing of such

facilities, as laboratory, library, workshop and an associated exchange of staff

- 4 **Community school interaction:** Privatisation, aims to hand more control over to the people, and generates greater freedom and respect for their needs. It is rather decentralisation. Privatisation and decentralisation of education in Poland increased educational activity and responsibility of society. (a) community associations, (b) religious organisations and (c) individual civilians (cf. UNDP, 1998).

Concluding remarks

Privatisation of secondary education is necessary to overcome fiscal deficit, increase efficiency and fulfill needs of the secondary school infrastructure, building up of national and human

responsibilities, and vocational development of students. However, as some experts have argued, there is another side of the coin of the privatisation of secondary school education. The role of the state in financing of school education should be because of two arguments. (a) equity and equality of opportunities, and (b) education is subject to economics of scale and thus that is more efficient to finance and provide education publicly (See, Jallade, 1973). In short, looking at all these with the state financing role, private sector's responsibility, community's responsibility, individual student's responsibility and the problem of educational environment, alternative provision and methods should be channeled. It can definitely serve better results.

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Rethinking Professional Development of Teachers

Demands and Desires

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Abstract

Based on the current knowledge and experience in the field of in-service education this article attempts to provide insights for re-conceptualisation of teachers' professional development. Traversing through the conceptual changes and the challenges of in-service teacher preparation it is argued that the purpose of professional development is no longer to bring outside expertise to the organisation to increase teachers' knowledge with regard to discrete new programmes or approaches. Rather, school based projects designed to recast teachers' learning have to be planned so that the professional development initiatives form a powerful means for the purpose of restructuring the organisation and the innovative ideas and strategies born in practice flourish across the system.

Keywords: Professional Development of Teachers.

THERE are few who debate the need for ongoing professional development of teachers. Professional development has become a critical ingredient of any formula aimed at qualitative advancement of education. The concepts of new theories, the finding

of education researches, development of new teaching material and instructional strategies will go fruitless if they do not bring into practice in the classroom. Professional development initiatives at the national, state, district and institution levels form powerful

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means to bring the innovations into the actual teaching-learning process. Such initiatives help in moulding better teachers by improving their knowledge, providing ways to help to develop their competence, empowering them to undertake innovative practices and by instilling in them a desire to do a better job of teaching.

Far-reaching educational reforms and constructive policy of the government to start large scale innovations in the education system, rapid developments in science and technology, and changes in the socio-cultural conditions require the teachers to rethink and recast their professionalism. Pre-service education, as it can only contribute to an initial competence to start a career as a teacher, cannot address the emerging professional needs of the teachers (Luft, 1999). Moreover, the newly inducted teachers must learn to apply their knowledge and skills on the job. From this perspective, professional development experiences can be viewed as a building up on the pre-service preparation. Thus ongoing professional development is given an added impetus in the current educational scenario.

Challenges of Professional Development

The recent demand for professional development of teachers stems from a range of school reform and in-service education activities that have been implemented across the country since the late 1980s, particularly those

undertaken during the late 1990s. These educational reforms are initiated mainly in response to wide ranging social, cultural, political and economic conditions that have had direct impact on all levels of education. In their wake teachers have had to respond to a variety of challenges at the structural and individual levels. Structurally, as identified by Sachs (2000), teachers have to be accountable to a variety of education stakeholders, direct the processes and provisions of school education, deliver more economical and efficient education provision, prepare students to be numerate, literate and be able to take civic, social responsibility. On the other hand, teachers need to be skilled practitioners at their individual level. That is, they should be able to solve immediate practical problems, reflect on their practice in order to develop quality learning opportunities for their students and cope with rapid change inside and outside their classrooms (Sachs, 2000).

The new millennium poses challenges not only to the individual teachers but also to the planners of professional development experiences at all levels of school education. These challenges in the context of India can be explained in three broad dimensions. The first one is **diversity**. The need to address the unique socio-cultural plurality has become one of the central concerns of the process and provisions of education in the country. Teachers in the present age

have to educate an increasingly diverse student population with different histories and cultural perspectives, experiences and expectations and styles and approaches to learning and organising information. Another dimension of the new age challenges is the **curricular concerns** or enhanced **goals of education**. The National Curriculum Framework for School Education (2000) envisages 'a curriculum which is to be responsible to the society, reflecting the needs of its learners'. Some of the critical concerns expressed in this curriculum framework are elimination of differences on the basis of caste, religion, gender, etc., responding to the impact of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation, linking education with life skills, education for value development, the child as a constructor of knowledge rather than a follower of the prescribed information, emphasis on culture-specific pedagogy, alternative approach to evaluation, and empowering teachers for curriculum development. These curricular concerns are the representations of the changes required by new or enhanced goals for schooling set by the National Policy on Education 1986 and the subsequent education reform initiatives. The third dimension of challenges of education involves creating new organisations. This does not refer to the establishment of new institutions in the physical sense. Rather it focuses on the necessity for

teachers and other educators to not only function well in but also to actually create new organisational cultures. The schools have to be transformed to centres of learning in their communities with the new focus on the diverse learners and new teaching-learning goals. In such settings collaboration is critical, teachers become co-learners, and building cultures and environments for learning replaces the traditional ideas of classroom teaching (Loucks-Horsley *et al.*, 1998).

All these challenges of education require teachers develop their professional competence or professionalism. Knowledge of the content of curriculum, though it is critical, is not enough, knowing how to teach this content to the diverse learners is equally or more important. Teachers have to build their capacity to design learning environments that are sufficiently flexible to accommodate varying needs of learners and utilise the full array of tools currently available and the new tools as they emerge. They have to develop their own teaching and learning strategies. Teachers are not islands in their community, hence they have to view themselves as members of a collective group that works for the benefit of its youths. The competence and attitudes required by this perception of teaching profession demand that teachers, like their students, must become life long learners.

Recasting Professional Development

Since the implementation of NPE in 1986 and its revision in 1992, a new impetus has been seen in the professional development initiatives at national, state and district levels. The NCFSE 2000 has also re-emphasised continuing education programmes for in-service teachers, as 'their initial education and training may not remain relevant and effective because of the present rate of change in content and pedagogy in the national and world scenario'. As such, a variety of agencies including National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and its constituent units, State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs), State Institutes of Education (SIEs) and District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) are engaged in sensitising the teachers about the new curricular concerns, issues and transactional approaches. The task of these organisations is not simply to sensitise the teachers on various concerns, but they have to plan professional development experiences to upgrade the knowledge and skills of teachers to prepare the students to face the challenges of the present century.

In the above context it is desirable to see what constitutes effective professional development as well as the attributes the principles of best practices. Loucks-Horsley and associates (1998) identified some of the attributes that are essential for effective professional development

programmes. Effective professional development experiences, according to them:

- Foster collegiality and collaboration
- Promote experimentation and risk taking
- Draw their content from available knowledge bases
- Involve participants in decisions about as many aspects of the professional development experiences as possible
- Provide time to participants, reflect on, and practice what is learned.
- Provide leadership and sustained support.
- Supply appropriate rewards and incentives.
- Have designs that reflect knowledge bases on learning and change.
- Integrate individual, school and district goals and
- Integrate both organisationally and instructionally with other staff development change efforts.

Many of the above attributes can be seen as parallel to those of effective learning experience for students. They are equally applicable to adult learning, for development of knowledge and skills of teachers also requires their active engagement in a variety of experiences over time.

In view of the above attributes of professional development, the current scenario of in-service teacher preparation in the country provides critical insights. The present author has had opportunities during the past five years to interact with teachers and teacher educators of different

states of northern India. The views of these educators sought through formal and informal discussions during a number of workshops and in-service programmes as well as the information gleaned through questionnaire and observation of some of the state level training programmes (Ramadas, 2000-2001) reveal certain critical concerns for professional development of teachers. These can be summarised as follows:

- There are significant number of teachers who have few or no opportunities for their professional development.
- A large percentage of the available opportunities in the form of training, workshops and orientation courses do not address the learning goals or provide sufficient support over time for teachers to develop their competence and to apply what is learnt in such programmes.
- In general, in-service programmes focus on individual teacher development — one teacher at a time — without proper attention to organisation development.
- Most of the programmes are informative rather than experiential. Based on a content model, these programmes ignore the process of professional development that gives importance to teachers' reflection on their own practices and that enables them to contribute to the programme by involving in interactive exercises

syndicated through provoking sessions.

- Whatever knowledge and experience gained from such programmes cannot be used by the teachers, as the work environment of the organisation goes contradictory to their skills and attitudes
- The negative effects due to disincentives, unclear expectations, lack of interpersonal support, absence of atmosphere for peer group learning and poor follow up and supervision greatly diminish the effects of these professional development initiatives.

The above findings indicate that the traditional ways in which professional development has occurred are inadequate either to address the emerging professional needs of the individual teachers or to bring about changes in the organisational phenomenon affecting each and every educator as well as the schools, colleges, universities and other organisations to which they belong.

The interaction with the teachers has also convinced that planners of professional development experiences require to be engaged in a continuous dialogue with educators before, during and after their programmes. This dialogic enterprise helps to build up their knowledge base and to improve their initiatives by making them more relevant and more effective. It will also provide natural feedback to them to formulate or reformulate and to implement effectively the current or

future programmes. The common visions that emerged out of the above mentioned interaction with the teachers and teacher educators are summarised below by drawing on the principles of effective professional development experience identified by Loucks-Horsley (1998)

1. Professional development initiatives should be driven by a well defined image of effective learning and teaching. For example, a shared common commitment to the learning of all children and not just the privileged of talented few, an emphasis on activity or inquiry based learning and application of knowledge, an approach that emphasises in depth understanding of core concepts and that enables the students to construct own understandings, and comprehensive means to evaluate the progress of the learners in different areas of curriculum. It is highly appreciable that these concerns have already been taken into account in the NCFSE 2000.
2. There should be opportunities for teachers to develop their knowledge and skills. They have not only to develop an indepth knowledge in their discipline but also learn how to teach a specific subject matter to the students who are diverse in multiple ways, by keeping in mind various curricular concerns. Therefore, professional development programmes should provide the teachers appropriate experiences to develop their mastery on the content as well as their pedagogic content knowledge.
3. Effective professional development experiences must start from where the teachers are and build from there. Teachers being experienced professionals know their field better than anyone else. They should be provided ample time for indepth investigation and be motivated to develop strategies that will be used with their students. Opportunities to work collaboratively, to reflect upon the classroom practices and to connect explicitly with other professional development experiences and activities are much significant.
4. Teachers need to build a learning organisation. This end can be achieved only when they view themselves as members of a learning community that attempts to help students learn how to learn. Thus continuous learning which is an inevitable attribute of professional development becomes a part of the school norm and culture. In this perspective, teachers like their students are life-long learners.
5. Teachers are agents of change and promoters of reform not only in schools but also in the society at large. Success of any education reform depends ultimately on the classroom practices of teachers. Teachers are not just the receivers of the knowledge which is constructed by the external agency, more they are the agents

who transmit this knowledge to the students. Their potential as constructors of knowledge and leaders of education reform is not yet adequately explored. Therefore, professional development experiences must support teachers to serve in leadership roles — not merely to pass on the constructed knowledge by parroting the strategy for its implementation, but to develop their own understanding of the field and to pursue a practice based on reflection.

6. Professional development programmes should have a focus on the organisation and not just the individual teacher. Career advancement of teacher is important, but a careeristic approach to professional development may not benefit the organisation. Effective professional development experiences link professional growth of each and every teacher to qualitative improvement of the organisation to which they belong and the education system in the country. Hence, professional development of teachers needs to be integrated with other organisation initiatives and state or national curriculum and assessments.
7. There is a need for an inbuilt mechanism for continuous assessment of professional development experiences in order to make improvement such initiatives. This can evoke positive

impact on teacher practices, student learning, innovative initiatives and the school community.

These concerns emphasise the need to rethink the existing practices, of professional development. Apart from the inservice programmes organised by external agencies, school-based initiatives designed to revision teacher professionalism that contributes to the overall vision underlying educational restructuring on a national scale can be undertaken. These projects can become instrumental in the reconceptualisation of the current practices in inservice teacher preparation. For, 'teachers', participate as part of a national network of teachers involved in professional development, teachers become part of the national agenda, and are inclusive of a national professional group' (Sachs 2000).

The projects can be of nation or state specific. But they should lead to creation of a vigorous professional community within school and across system or state boundaries, which can develop new ideas and bring significant changes in teacher practices for improving student learning outcome. These initiatives would ultimately provide a 'legitimate vehicle for the purpose of restructuring the organisation so that good ideas and strategies born in practice can flourish and not be hindered by existing bureaucratic forces' (Grimmett, cited in Sachs 2000).

A Platform for Rethinking Professionalism

Sachs (2000) identifies five core principles of teachers' professionalism: learning, participation, collaboration, cooperation and activism. These values taken together specify what it means to be a socially responsible and active professional in the new millennium. They also constitute the fundamentals of a proactive responsible approach to professionalisation of teachers.

Teachers are the members of a learning community and learning is the core of professional development. Therefore, educators have to practice the value of learning, both with their colleagues and with their students. It is their recasting as learners that can change the social relations in the schools — the relations between the teachers, teachers and students, and teachers and their community. In such a changing climate, 'learning rather than teaching becomes the core activity of teacher and student life in schools' (Sachs, 2000)

A positive change in the social relations in the school depends upon the active participation by the teachers, students and their communities. Rethinking of professional development starts when teachers see themselves as the agents of changes in their own professional worlds. However, this can only happen when they are encouraged to be the change agents by providing adequate opportunities to enhance their competencies, their experiences are tapped and their agency developed.

Such a participative approach to professional development needs to be viewed as a core value and strategy, put in place to be developed and supported by the teachers themselves, teacher educators, principals and other administrators and other policy activists.

Collaboration can be internal as well as external. Internal collaboration refers to the professional learning and development of teachers within their community. Teachers' coming together in learning groups can provide a platform for consultations within the school or across a number of schools. Team based on collaboratively oriented conversations promote a dialogical process through which teachers as individuals and as a group can change what they think about prevailing classroom practices. External collaboration on the other hand involves working with other interested parties outside the school boundaries. For instance, partnerships with community groups of academics working in universities can provide opportunities for new kinds of expertise to be developed on the part of both school-based personnel and their university based colleagues.

The present school climate provides limited opportunities for the teachers to work with their peers in collaborative and cooperative ways. Teachers as professionals have not developed a sound tradition of learning from each other and develop their expertise collectively. Although they have unions, few of these organisations

works on a professional line to advance the teaching and learning practices in the schools. Nor do they have an agenda for discussing and reflecting upon the current school practice and its outcome. This general disinclination for teachers' professional learning is reinforced by many factors, which include the very pragmatic nature of teaching, the condition under which teachers work, the precedents set by past practices, the intangibility of its consequences and the intensity and immediacy of the work of teaching (Sachs, 2000). These factors collectively point to the compelling need to recast teachers' professionalism and warrant collaborative and cooperative learning and reflective practices as inexorable conditions for effecting desired changes in this direction.

Teachers' activism refers here to their responding publicly with issues that relate directly or indirectly to education. It involves participation, collaboration and cooperation from both within and outside the profession. Activist teachers not only stand up for what is described as the 'moral purpose of teaching' but also engage individually and collectively in the change agency. The role of the teacher in the change process is critical, as the leverage for change can be greater through their efforts, and each teacher has some control over what she/he does, because it is their own motives and skills are in question (Fullan, 1993). However, this kind of activism, says Sachs (2000), requires risk taking

and fighting for ideals that enhance education. It also requires passion, determination and energy. Activism provides better results if it is collective rather than an individual act. Nevertheless, the role of individual teacher is also crucial.

The principles for rethinking professionalism described here can form a platform on which teachers' professional practice can be recasted. However, if these values are taken in isolation that may not contribute to the overall project of professional development of teachers and the school reform initiative. Alternatively, these values collectively can create profound impacts on the school cultures that are fundamental for building a socially and politically responsible profession of teaching. Therefore, teacher's professional development needs to be relooked on the basis of these principles of professionalism. Professional development experiences built on these values only can provide what is meant by reclaiming teacher's professional agenda. However, such projects have to be guided by a shared vision of the purposes which teacher professionalism should serve within active social and political communities.

These principles of professionalism decentre the external motivational devices and place teachers in an active role in defining their own professional needs and deciding the means to achieve these needs. Teachers are to be seen as responsible professionals who learn themselves and improve

the learning of their students. This is not to suggest that teachers form the sole professional learning community. In fact, they work within multiple contexts, both within and beyond the school, and participate in various kinds of professional network, for example, cross-curricular groups, meetings organised by teachers' unions or local educational authorities, subject associations or action research networks (Helsby, 1996). The strategic thinking of policy activists and interventions made by the academics, administrators and external agencies do have their share to contribute in promoting professional development of teachers. But, collaborative, participative and activist cultures within the school are much more significant of all that define teachers' sense of professionalism. Because, the schools have to contextualise their approaches to professional development, otherwise the substantial changes they face may continue to be stressful and perhaps not implemented to their full potential (Walker and Cheong, 1996).

Concluding Remarks

In this article, personal experience in the field of in service education and the current knowledge in professional development to demonstrate how inservice teacher preparation in India can be reconceptualised to enable teachers to rethink their practice has been used. The discussion draws to

the changing concept of professional development. The goal of professional development is no longer to bring outside expertise to the school to increase teachers' knowledge with regard to a discrete new programme or approach. The focus of professional development experiences cannot be the teacher alone, but it should also give importance to the organisation to which the teachers belong. The educational community in the country has developed much knowledge about what constitutes effective teacher preparation, though it may be lying with the educationists, professional developers or organisations at the national, state or district levels. It is the need of the time to bring these experiences into a knowledge base would provide deeper insights into the current practices in this area. It would also help to bring about a few distinct models of professional development as alternatives to traditional formats of inservice training or workshops. Examination of these models in the light of current knowledge of professional development across the world would also enable to identify unique or shared attributes of professional development strategies focussed in these initiatives. This can ultimately lead to the development of a framework for guiding professional developers in designing and strengthening their programmes

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Evaluating Answer Scripts

MAMTA AGARWAL*

Abstract

Written examinations have been a target of criticism due to the element of subjectivity in them. Subjectivity in marking is more in essay type than short answer type questions. But even in marking short answer and very short answer questions, mistakes occur. An important measure to reduce subjectivity in marking is to prepare a detailed marking scheme.

This should be done for both school level examinations and board examinations. The marking scheme should be discussed thoroughly among the evaluators in order to make it fool proof. The paper suggests some more measures like training of examiners, standardisation of marking and checking of marking to reduce subjectivity in written examinations.

Keywords. Written Examination, Marking Scheme, Scoring Key, Standardisation of Marking, Examiners, Evaluation

WRITTEN examination is an important component of any system of evaluation. Whether it is institution based system of evaluation, or external examinations, written examinations are used to test students' achievement in scholastic areas at all levels of education. Written examinations have been a target of fire from educationists

as well as the public due to a number of reasons like low reliability, misclassification of students, non-comparability of results, varying standards, etc. The root cause of all these ills is that marking of scripts is subjective and not judicious and fair.

It is a well-known fact that subjectivity in marking is more in

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essay type or long answer questions than in short answer and very short answer questions. Even so examiners still make mistakes in marking questions which have very short answers indeed. Sometimes it is difficult to see how the mistake has occurred, sometimes it is easier to understand the problem: the candidate's handwriting is so poor that the examiner has not been able to make up his mind whether a word is correct or not or sometimes the candidate has written down an answer which is not shown in the marking scheme and the examiner has not realised that it is an acceptable alternative (Neale, 1985, p. 40)

Over the years, essay type questions are now used much less than they used to be. Nowadays, both in school tests and in Board examinations there is a mixture of very short answer, short answer and only a few essay type questions. Many Boards have also introduced multiple choice questions in their examinations with a view to reduce subjectivity in marking. However, essay type and short answer questions are still there and subjectivity in marking still persists.

A very important measure to reduce subjectivity in evaluating answer scripts is to prepare a good marking scheme, giving detailed guidelines for evaluating different questions. Though for this purpose, marking schemes are specially needed in situations where more than one examiners are marking the papers as in a Board examination or in a school

where there are more than one section of a class, but marking schemes are also useful where single teacher is involved in paper marking and evaluation. The question, however, comes up as to how a marking scheme should be developed so that the examiners make less mistakes in marking.

Preparing a Marking Scheme

The process of preparing a marking scheme starts along with the process of preparing questions for the question paper. In fact, it has been a common experience that the teachers can prepare questions very fast but when they are asked to think of the answer to the question they have prepared, they start fumbling and eventually discover mistakes in the question itself. Therefore, it is essential to prepare the scoring key for the objective type questions and marking scheme for essay type, short answer and very short answer type questions simultaneously with the framing of questions. The formats of the scoring key and marking scheme are given below.

Scoring Key

Q No	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Key							
Marks							

Marking Scheme

Q No.	Expected Outline Answers	Value Points	Marks

Scoring key is prepared showing the serial number of question, its key and the marks carried by it. The marking scheme indicates the serial number of the question, expected outline answer, value points carried by each point in the answer and the total marks.

Whereas scoring key is easy and simple to prepare, a good marking scheme requires various considerations to be kept in mind. These are as follows.

1. In case there are more than one answers possible for a question, all the possible answers should be taken into cognizance. For example — *Fill in the blank with appropriate words :*

I go to the cinema regularly, but I _____ to the theatre for months. The paper setter may have 'haven't been' in mind, but there are other possibilities like don't go, may not go, didn't go, haven't gone, won't go and so on, which are all correct.

A better option in such a case would be not to give a question like this which has such a large number of possibilities. Instead the paper setters should choose an item with limited number of correct answers, and if possible, only one correct answer.

2. In a short answer or long answer type question where the number of points asked for are limited and the question has many more points as answers, all the points relevant to the answer should be given in

the marking scheme. The student should be given freedom to choose a limited number of them in the answer. In the marking scheme it may be indicated that any of the points given by the student may be taken as correct. For example—

- Q. Give two contributions of Vijayanagara kings to which we can attribute the existing harmony among the Hindus and the Muslims in South India. 2

Marking Scheme

Outline Answer	Value Points	Marks
a State encouragement to joint participation of the Hindus and the Muslims in the religious celebrations	1	
b Religious Freedom	1	
c Equality in the employment opportunities to both the Hindus and the Muslims	1 2	

(Any two will be taken as correct.)

3. Detailed instructions need to be worked out for marking questions in languages where the questions are based in textual content. Proper weightages are to be indicated for the textual content and the language aspect including correct use of grammar, spelling and punctuation (expression). An example is given below:

(The question is based on a lesson in standard XI)

- Q. Give two reasons why Mahmood stopped making Kites? 3

Marking Scheme

Outline Answer	Value Points	Marks
----------------	--------------	-------

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| a Adults disliked kites | 1 | |
| b Children preferred to spend their money at movies | 1 | |
| c There were few open spaces left in the city | 1 | |
| (Any two will be taken as correct.) | | |
| Expression = 1 | | 3 |
4. In case of questions based on unseen comprehension passage in a language question paper, it is necessary to mention that the focus is on comprehension alone and not on expression. So no marks may be deducted for grammatical or spelling mistakes. This guideline needs to be given in the marking scheme where the answers for the questions on the comprehension passage are given.
5. For questions on paragraph writing, essay writing, note writing or letter writing, marking guidelines need to be given in the marking scheme in order to standardise marking. For example, the break up of marks for different components may be shown like this for a letter to be marked out of 10 marks.
- | | |
|--|---------|
| a. layout (in case of a letter and a note) | 2 marks |
| b. content relevance | 4 marks |
| c. presentation of ideas in a logical sequence | 2 marks |

d language aspect , 2 marks
(i.e. use of appropriate structure, spelling and punctuation)

Total 10 marks

6. While preparing marking scheme for mathematics question paper, it is necessary to mention that marks may be given for both process and product and not just for product alone. It will be better if clear indication is given as to what percentage is slated for process.

7. In subjects like sciences and social sciences, it has been observed very often that teachers deduct marks for mistakes in spelling. For example, consider the following question:

Q. _____ and _____ are two plants which grow from the stem.

Ans (As given by a student) *Gingar* and *Sugarcane* are two plants which grow from the stem.

The teacher awarded $\frac{1}{2}$ mark instead of 1 because the spelling of 'ginger' was wrong. Is it justified? Is it fair?

— It should be made clear while preparing the marking scheme in sciences and social sciences that concepts are more important than the spelling. Therefore, no marks may be deducted for such mistakes.

8. Here is another example from General Science.

Q. What is the shape of the earth?

Ans (As given by a student) The shape of the earth is round.

The teacher deducted half a mark because the child had not added 'like a ball'. It is something which are not really required. Such marking by teachers encourage the children to mug up sentences from the textbook which is not a very desirable practice.

If a proper marking scheme was prepared indicating the main idea, this wouldn't have happened.

For standardising marking at school level, it is suggested that the teachers teaching different sections of a class should get together and discuss the marking scheme prepared by the paper setter before starting the evaluation of scripts. This will help in not only making the marking scheme more comprehensive but also standardising the marking to a certain extent. Moreover, problems like the following will also be solved after discussion.

Questions as given in the question paper

Fill in the blanks with past perfect form of the verbs:

- (i) He left office after he ____ (take) his breakfast.
- (ii) I ran very fast as I came to know that the train ____ (leave)

Answers as given in the marking scheme

- (i) had taken
- (ii) had left

Consider the question (ii) and its answer. Obviously the question

has been wrongly framed. In a situation where the train has already left, there is no point in running very fast. The discussion among teachers before the evaluation of scripts can sort out such problems. At the time of evaluation of scripts marks can be given to the correct answer which in this case should be "was leaving" according to the meaning of the sentence. (Though it would be wrong according to the direction given the answering the question) If a discussion takes place even before giving the question paper for printing, it would be better, as the error can be removed.

At Board level, some measures are suggested to reduce the number of errors which are made by evaluators while marking the scripts.

1. Selection of Examiners

Selection of examiners is important for carrying out reliable evaluation of answer scripts. The teachers selected for evaluation work should be teaching the subject for at least 4-5 years in an affiliated school. If possible, the Board should arrange a short test of competence in marking followed by an interview. In the test, two or three answer scripts can be given to the candidate for evaluation along with a marking scheme. It can then be ensured how far the teacher (candidate) is able to follow the marking scheme in evaluating the scripts.

2. Training of Examiners

A training should be provided by the Board to all the new examiners before allowing them to mark examination papers. In this training the evaluators should be made aware of the attitudes that the traditional evaluators have towards marking for ages. Some of these attitudes which hold good even today are:

- a. Full marks are not be awarded in any answer especially in languages, social sciences and sciences.
- b. Full marks in mathematics questions can be awarded when the answer is correct, otherwise no marks are to be given.
- c. Marking of long answer question by looking at the length of the answer and the handwriting.
- d. Good marks to be given to those answers which adhere to the bookish knowledge and bookish language.

It should be made clear during the training that in order to be fair and just in marking the above attitudes should not come into play. The following points may be emphasised.

- a. The marking should take into cognizance the whole range of marks for a question, i.e. even full marks may be awarded if the answer is well written in subjects like languages, social sciences and sciences
- b. In mathematics, apart from the product, process should also be taken into cognizance while awarding marks.

- c. The answer should be read fully and then only the evaluator may decide how much marks the student deserves. The judgement should not be based on factors like handwriting and length of the answer
- d. Originality of thinking and expressing should be rewarded in language and social science papers.
- e. In social sciences, the evaluators should not judge the worth of an answer with his own bias in mind. If the student gives appropriate arguments for his point of view, displays critical thinking and comes to an appropriate conclusion, marks may be awarded even if his point of view differs from that of the evaluator. In this way, it should be brought home to the trainees that the approach of evaluation should be learner centred. The student should be awarded marks for what he knows and not punished for what he doesn't know.

The training should not be limited to only lectures on skills of marking but should consist of a practicum involving marking of various kinds of scripts under the supervision of an experienced examiner. For this exercise, papers from a previous Board examination may be used with all the original marks removed. The trainees may then be graded for their marking skills. Those with higher grades may be allowed to take up the actual marking.

Standardisation of Marking

The marking scheme prepared by the paper setter should be subjected to a lengthy discussion by the evaluators. For this, a meeting of 8-10 evaluators should be organised by the Board wherein the 3-5 answer scripts should be given to the evaluators for marking on the basis of the marking scheme. After this trial of the marking scheme, discussion should take place and the marking scheme should be modified for final use in the actual evaluation work.

Spot evaluation is a good measure in the standardised marking of Board papers. The examiners should mark papers at one place where the Chief Examiner can constantly supervise the evaluation work. For each examiner, the chief examiner should also make a sample checking of the evaluation work. If he is not satisfied with the evaluation work of an examiner, he can discuss it with him then and there and sort out the problem areas.

Checking the Marking

Checking the evaluated scripts after the spot evaluation is over will help doubly ensure the reliability of marking. For this, sample scripts of each examiner should be checked by the chief examiner. If there are any lacunas found in the marking carried out by some particular examiners, Board should make arrangements for getting the scripts marked by them to be re-checked by reliable examiners

Statistical analysis of each examiner's work may be made by the Board as soon as possible and those found lacking in carrying out the work seriously either should not be invited next year for evaluation work, or be warned adequately to take greater care in future assignment depending on the degree of the variability found in their work.

If the scripts valued by different examiners are analysed more intensively, it is likely to have two important consequences. Firstly, the marking of scripts would improve in terms of both validity and reliability. Secondly, once the answer books have been analysed, it is possible to judge what kind of instruction was imparted in the classroom (MHRD, 1997, P. 111). This kind of exercise in each subject would require a committed band of people to undertake it each year and the results have to be fed back to the schools to improve instruction.

Re-evaluation and Transparency

Related to the evaluation of answer scripts is the issue of re-evaluation. Most of the Boards in the country do not allow for re-evaluation of answer scripts after the results have been declared. Some Boards allow only re-totalling of scripts wherein the checked scripts are seen again and the awarded marks are retotaled to check the calculation mistakes. This kind of practice does not allow transparency in the system. Similar practices have

percolated down to the school level and the scripts of terminal examinations are not shown to the students, with the result that students are left guessing as to where they committed mistakes and why they got lesser marks than expected. Thus, a large number of students and their parents are left dissatisfied with the scoring in examinations (MHRD, 1997, p. 58).

Such practices cannot be endorsed either at the Board levels. Both at the Board and school levels students should be shown their answer scripts so as to make the system more transparent and honest. If the provision of showing the answer scripts is made by these agencies, the evaluators will not have a casual attitude in marking and will be more careful in carrying out the task, because in the first place the demand for re-evaluation occurs as a large number of people are not satisfied with the marks awarded by evaluators in the examinations.

Conclusion

It may be concluded here that evaluation of scripts is a serious work and it can make or mar the life of students. At primary school, when the students are in their formative stage, appropriate objective-based

evaluation of scripts is necessary. This is the time when the evaluation of answers by the teachers sets the learning styles of students. If much emphasis is given on mugged up answers, students will learn to mug-up and reproduce textbook language in the examination. If the teachers value critical and original thinking by the students, students would try to be more original and critical in their answers. Right from the first test marked by a teacher in a class test, students realise what the teacher emphasises. The teacher has to be extra careful while marking the papers as the marking affects the child's learning and his formation of various concepts. Therefore, marking should be standardised as far as possible to reduce inter-teacher and intra-teacher variability (Agrawal and Rajput, 1994, p. 291). The teachers should be made aware that objective-based marking is important in order to be judicious, fair and encouraging to the students.

At Board level, it is a long and cumbersome task but has to be carried out very meticulously so as to ensure the credibility of the Board and also to safeguard the faith of the students, parents, teachers, schools and the general public in the working of the Board which in recent years are shown signs of dwindling.

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Children with Behaviour Disorders in Normal Schools

Teacher Preparation and Efficiency Parameters

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Abstract

In every classroom, we can find children with deviant behaviours from the normal children. To integrate such children in normal classroom, the teachers require certain competencies. In this paper, the authors deal with concept, meaning the causes of behaviour disordered children. It also deals with the objectivity, flexibility, structure, resourcefulness, curriculum expertise and intellectual model and so on which are some of the efficiency parameters to be considered for the teacher preparation programme. Apart from this, the specific competency required by the teacher is the use of behaviour modification therapy. In the process of this behaviour modification the teacher can use the steps such as, defining the behaviour to be changed, model the behaviour, imitation and rehearsal, feedback and intermittent reinforcement. In every step the teacher can use various strategies depending upon the nature of behaviour to be changed.

Keywords: Behaviour Disordered Children

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"TENDER without being sentimental; tough but not callous, sensitive but not irritable; possessed by conviction; profoundly aware without loss of spontaneity; trusting in the intuitive humane responsiveness of one's self and one's colleagues and self-actualised" This is the statement of desirable characteristics for the teachers of behaviour disordered children compiled from the writings of Rainbow (1955), Mackie, Kvaraceus and Williams (1957) and Haring (1962). The implication is that the teachers must possess a personal giftedness and educational artistry in the tradition of Maria Montessori, Grace Fernald and August Aichhorn in order to be effective with disturbed children. Elsewhere, Rainbow (1960) has stated that "the artistry of the teacher is more significant than the trainable competencies". Such a statement is valid but it is questionable if recruitment and training of teachers are to keep pace with the growing demand for special care for disturbed children, in classroom situation.

In every school system, there are pupils who because they deviate markedly so-called "normal" child, require special skills and services on the part of teachers and other school personnel. These children cannot adjust to the school programme without such special care. Those children are orthopaedically handicapped — deaf, blind, epileptic and crippled, some differ mentally to a significant degree, being either seriously retarded in intellectual

development or exceptionally gifted, some are emotionally disturbed or are unable to make proper social adjustment. Such serious emotional disturbance may result in disturbed personality or in a delinquency.

There is no concise simple way to define and identify disordered functioning Behavioural repertoires come in endless varieties. They are also referred to by many labels behavioural disturbances, behavioural dysfunctions, behaviour disturbances, behaviour disorders, psychological problems, abnormal behaviour, maladaptive behaviour, impairments, deficiencies, deficits and psychopathology. Regardless of the label, however, the parents and others often assume that behavioural disturbance is much like a medical disease that has a specific indicator, such as the presence of infection. This is overwhelmingly not the case, rather guidelines for identifying or diagnosing, behavioural dysfunctions are based on relatively fluid judgement of what is or is not problematic. The American Psychiatric Association (1994) defines a disorder as an impairment or dysfunction of the individual that causes distress to the person or increased risk of death, pain, disability or loss of freedom. Clearly, a disorder is viewed as 'bad' for the individual.

Defining behaviour disorder is somewhat like defining familiar experience: anger, loneliness or happiness, for example. The factors that make it particularly difficult to

arrive at a good definition of emotional/behaviour disorder are:

- Lack of an adequate definition of mental health and normal behaviour.
- Differences among conceptual models.
- Difficulties in measuring emotions and behaviour
- Relationship between emotional/behavioural disorders/other handicaps.
- Differences in the functions of socialisation agents who categorise and serve children.

Hence, it can be said the behaviourally disturbed children can be defined as those whose educational performance is affected for a long period by any one of the following conditions:

- An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors.
- An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and tutors.
- Inappropriate types of behaviour or feelings under normal circumstances.
- A general, pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
- A tendency to develop physical symptoms, pains or fears associated with personal and social problems.

Children who are autistic, fall under this category, but the children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they are seriously behaviourally disturbed, do not fall

under the category of children with emotional/behavioural disorders

There are many ways to have emotional/behavioural disorder. Hence, it is reasonable to expect that students can be grouped into subcategories according to the types of the problem they have. Still there is no generally acceptable system for classifying behavioural disorder for special training. For example, Quay and Peterson (1987) describe six dimensions characterised by the following kinds of behaviour.

1. Conduct Disorders

- try to seek attention.
- show off behaviour.
- disruptive and annoy others.
- Evince temper tantrums and fight frequently.

2. Socialised Aggression

- They steal in company with others
- They remain loyal to delinquent friends
- They are truant from school with others
- They had 'bad' companions
- They freely admit disrespect for moral values and laws.

3. Attention Problems and Immaturity

- known for short attention span
- power of concentration is markedly poor
- easily distractible and diverted from the task at hand

- sluggish, slow moving and lethargic
- tend to answer without thinking.

4. **Anxiety — Withdrawal**

- self-conscious
- easily embarrassed
- usually hypersensitive
- feelings are easily hurt
- generally fearful and anxious
- depressed and always sad.

5. **Psychotic Behaviours**

- express far-fetched ideas
- marked for repetitive speech
- evince bizarre behaviour

6. **Motor Excess**

- restless and unable to sit still
- tensed and unable to relax
- over talkative.

Understanding of the student with behaviour disorders is sometimes a complex one. The problems/disorders differ from child to child and it is relatively too difficult to identify them because they exhibit more subtle behaviours. In the context of a busy classroom of our situation, it is not easy to tackle such children and apply appropriated instructional strategies to enhance their learning. It is estimated that 15 to 30 per cent of the children in a classroom are disturbed emotionally from one to the other. Since the teachers are considered to be the parent and the guide, they are responsible for the development of each child of their class. To play their role in a more effective way, they should have passion, kindness and sense of mind with right type of attitude.

Mackie *et al.* (1957) have attempted to be more specific and objective in delineating necessary qualities for teachers of the socially and emotionally maladjusted. They had teachers of such children rank 88 competencies in the order of importance. Among the 88 competencies, understanding of techniques adaptable to the classroom situation for relieving tensions and promoting good mental health is rated number '1' and knowledge of the cultural patterns of other societies is rated as number '88'. Although, this is an impressive and ambitious undertaking, the study is not well informed, due to large number of competencies ranked and the wide scope of the educational skills covered. The competencies for the teachers of behaviourally disturbed children roughly parallel the educational tasks of the teachers of the disabled (Hewett, 1964). The teachers of behaviour disordered children will possess the dedication and vitality necessary for all individuals who become effective teachers of the same. The major competencies which are emphasised in many researches (Rainbow *et al.*, Mackie *et al.*, 1957, Lord 1950 and Stulken, 1950 — from most basic to highest level) are those the teacher of the behaviour disordered children should have. objective, flexible, structured, resourceful, a social reinforcer, a curriculum expert and intellectual model.

Objectivity

The most important single requirement for the effective teacher of the behaviour disordered is to be objective. He/she should have the knowledge about the normal and deviant behaviours of the children. The knowledge of such theories and experiments will enhance to develop an objective, questioning and educational attitude towards teaching. It is not enough to rely on the cafeteria approach to special education using this technique because it seems appropriate or that material because of its previous success. The teacher should make an objective assessment of why particular approach towards Behaviour Disorder (BD) children is a success or failure and then communicate his findings to others. The teachers often prefer to radiate inspiration and personal example rather than to attempt to quantify successes and failures. The teacher must strive to define educational goals and practices so that they are understandable to other experts like psychiatrists, therapists and parents of BD children, and relate to the broadest treatment plans for the child, whether in a clinic, home or school setting.

Flexibility

It is closely related to an objective approach to the education of BD children. What promotes a student's success today may result in a classroom catastrophe tomorrow,

depending on the shifting needs and interests of the child. The flexible teacher is comfortable operating in such a state of flux. Continual assessment of the learning capacity of students and subsequent modification of educational goals are essential. The flexible teacher communicates complete acceptance of all students individuals, regardless of their manifest intellectual, perceptual motor and social skills or current emotional states

Structure

While maintaining flexibility, the teacher of BD child must set consistent and reasonable behavioural and educational limits. Some aspects of classroom routine and expectation will change on a day to day, minute to minute basis, but there must be a clearly defined substructure operating at all times. This role is carefully defined for the child upon admission to class, as it assumes the ability to tolerate some restriction of space, noise level and activity and to respect the working rights of other. In addition, the teacher must carefully structure student assignments. Units of work which are well defined and realistically attainable, rather than vague and open ended, are preferable. Immediate feedback is also an important adjunct to structured approach. Assignments should be corrected at once and errors discussed. Daily behavioural rating scales may also be used to provide feedback regarding their current understanding of the classes

Resourcefulness

The objective, flexible and structured teacher who is also resourceful is an excellent position to teach BD children. The resourceful teacher provides classroom experiences which emphasise maximum reality testing and multisensory stimulation. The teacher should also select meaningful and impactful materials and activities which draw the child into an exploratory relationship with the environment. The resourceful teacher also assesses sensory and perceptual motor needs of the child and selects learning activities which provide development in these areas and promote readiness for more formal curriculum experience.

Social Reinforcement

The value of the teacher as a social reinforcer to BD child cannot be over-emphasised. Most such children display seriously disturbed relationships with others, particularly with adults. It is important to understand how the child perceives the teacher and what opportunities and limitations exist in the teacher-student relationship. Having assessed the child's capacity for relating to an adult authority figure, the teacher can use positive social reinforcement, such as praise and individual attention in appropriate manner to motivate and control the child. Negative reinforcement are also essential in maintaining structured working relationship. Even for some children,

a stern look, shaking of head or a restraining touch may be meaningful and effective. For others, allowing inappropriate behaviour to extinguish by ignoring it may be the most successful approach. Selecting such successful reinforcement techniques and constantly evaluating their effectiveness are important tasks for the teacher who, as an adult model, can often aid in reshaping the child's social attitudes and behaviour. Sometimes, peer groups may also be used to promote positive social experiences for the child.

Curriculum Expertise

The competencies previously discussed tend to emphasise the teacher's clinical judgement and psychosocial awareness but skill as a curriculum expert cannot be overlooked. Regardless of the psychological sophistication of the teacher of the disturbed, his ultimate success will depend on a sound basic understanding of educational practices and techniques. As a result, in the selection of the best candidate for the teacher of the disturbed, the individual with an advanced psychology degree but no training in education of BD children is often less promising than the stable, flexible and resourceful classroom teacher who is thoroughly knowledgeable in basic curriculum methods and materials. There is a point in the special education programme for most BD children when the primary contribution of the teacher is good teaching. The ability to set realistic academic goals keeping the

student's intellectual and achievement levels, the teacher should institute appropriate developmental and remedial procedures in reading, arithmetic and other basic skills.

Intellectual Model

Finally, the teacher must be competent in functioning as an intellectual model with those BD students whose problems do not interfere with intellectual functioning and who are often best helped by an educational programme of enrichment. Development of good study habits, pursuit of academic work in considerable depth, frequent discussion with the teacher on issues of importance to the student and involvement in special projects of research may be important aspects of such a programme

Thus, these are all the seven basic areas of competencies for the teachers of BD children. It generally raises the question of priority of one competency over another. Such objectivity and flexibility are given the most important places in the model, and the teacher possessing these qualities but who is poor as a social reinforcer and curriculum expert be a better teacher of the BD than one possessing social reinforcement and curriculum skills. Each is important and certain teachers adequately compensate for limitations at a particular level and certain BD children respond best to teachers who are more competent in one area than in other.

Apart from all the above competencies, these are certain parameters for the teachers to handle BD children effectively. The needed and prior competency of the teacher dealing BD children is ability to give behavioural therapies/technique to BD children in the classroom. Behavioural techniques generally emphasise consequences for attention, rule adherence, academic effort, socially appropriate behaviours and parent training. It is also helping the child to attend the tasks and gradually change/minimise emotional disturbance in the child. Sparzo and Poteet (1993) present a nine-step plan for setting up a behaviour change intervention. They point out that in many cases it is not necessary to apply all the nine steps; often it is sufficient merely to specify the target behaviour to be changed and apply an appropriate change strategy to assess the outcome. The nine steps are:

- (i) define the target behaviour to be changed
- (ii) observe and record the current frequency and duration of the behaviour
- (iii) set attainable goals, involving the student in this process if possible
- (iv) identify potential reinforcers by observing what this student finds rewarding
- (v) select teaching procedures, such as modelling, prompting, role play, etc.
- (vi) plan to have child rehearse the target behaviour

- (vii) implement the programme over time, providing feedback to the child
- (viii) monitor the programme through ongoing observation and by comparing frequency and duration measures with those evident before the intervention.
- (ix) once the change in behaviour has occurred, make sure it is maintained and take every opportunity to help the child generalise the behaviour to different settings and contents.

To adopt behavioural therapy the teacher can follow the undersaid concised steps:

- a) Defining the Behaviour
- b) Model the Behaviour
- c) Imitation and Rehearsal
- d) Feedback
- e) Provide opportunity for the behaviour to be used
- f) Intermittent reinforcement

a) Defining the Behaviour

First, the teacher should possess the knowledge of different types of behaviour disorders. And he/she should be able to identify the particular type of behaviour disorder and the limitation of the child's abilities and how to tailor activities to fit within that abilities. For example, if the teacher identifies a child with inattention, she/he should know the nature, causes and consequences of it in detail. To understand all the above-said things, the teacher has to discuss with the parents of the particular child,

psychologists, different therapists and other experts and the need to change the disorder, i.e. inattention. Initially, the teacher should make the particular inattentive child to realise its disorder and in this individual attention is necessary. The BD children normally need someone who can live with, accept and understand them. If they understand the teacher is the one with all the above, they will naturally proceed to the tunes of the teacher. The teacher also should respond to the child without the emotions such as anger, fear, erotic, frustration etc. The consequences of inattention such as poor academic achievement, non-acceptance by the peers and even sometimes by the family, poor social adjustment and so on can be taught to the particular child and should gradually make the child to understand its problem.

b) Model the Behaviour

By knowing the causes, nature and consequences of inattention, the teacher has to decide what needs to be done and how that is to be done to change the undesirable behaviour to desirable one. That is inattention to attentiveness. In such a process, the teacher should break the behaviour to be developed into small segments, which the young one can manage easily. During this stage, the teacher with inattentive child can adopt certain strategies like — make the child to sit in an audible and visible place, separating the child from its badly

influencing peers attracting the child through use of colourful pictures and cartoons, usage of puppets and other audio-visual aids for teaching will enhance naturally the child to develop its attention in the classroom. These instructions should also be given slowly through small segments. Such simple components should be clearly demonstrated by using such attractive materials by the teacher or even by another child. Apart from this, different techniques such as role-play, mimes and so on can also be employed to the inattentive child to develop coping strategies.

c) Imitation and Rehearsal

In this situation, the inattentive child will slowly coming to the structured way of attention. For this to occur successfully, the child must be motivated to perform the behaviour, i.e. attention, by asking repeatedly what they just have done and how they might have acted differently. Even the inattentive child may give a chance to demonstrate what instruction the teacher has given in the classroom. Such acceptance will definitely pave the way for the change of behaviour. Whenever the change of behaviour occurs, continuous reinforcement should be given in the form of assigning leadership role.

d) Feedback

After the change in behaviour is occurring, the feedback is necessary to find out the effect of the instruction/

methods and materials the teachers used or any other. Feedback is always helping to say the child 'you've not quite got it yet or try it again or that's better or very good'. Such feedback will enhance the perfect way of conducting behavioural therapies.

e) Provide Opportunity for the Changed Behaviour to be Used

The teacher should not stop technique if there is positive feedback. Because, the behaviour therapies should have long-term management. If the teacher stops with short term, the child will once again adopt the particular inattention behaviour. Hence, the teacher should provide opportunity continuously in the classroom to the particular child to remain its attentiveness. As said earlier, the teacher can give chance to the child to read out and demonstrate or tell the lessons/instructions taught in the classroom and so on. As we know, that behaviour modification is a complex phenomena, continuous monitoring should also be there in the school and outside the school. In this respect it is wise to involve the parents of the particular inattentive child what is going on in the school and what and how it should be done in home environment to bring continuous and permanent change in behaviour.

f) Intermittent Reinforcement

The teacher should watch carefully whether the child is attentive in all the classes and provide descriptive

reward and praise. The aim of reinforcement is to maintain the behaviour the child has adopted, i.e. attentiveness. It can be both positive and negative according to the situations.

In nutshell, objectivity, flexibility and perfect structure are requisites for the resourceful teacher who functions effectively as a social reinforcer, curriculum expert and intellectual models. But, the knowledge of applying behaviour therapy and use of this therapy with various strategies according to the

nature of the behaviour disorder are highly essential for the teacher in dealing with BD children in the class. To tell precisely, these are the parameters for the teachers to act effectively with such children. Hence, there is a need to aid recruiters, trainers and prospective teachers in the field of education of BD children by replacing the vague any mystical notion of the gifted artist with a more objective concept of the trainable teacher.

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Guidance and Counselling for Vocational Education in Schools

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Abstract

Vocationalisation of school education has been advocated since the National Commission on Education-1964-66. Though not much has affected changes, argues the author, the need for vocational education —both generic and specific — has been accepted by all stakeholders of education. The spread of vocational education and its effective implementation could be achieved by guidance and counselling, concludes the author.

Keywords: Vocational Education, Guidance and Counselling

Introduction

WORK IS worship. It is the other name of life. It is the essence of life. Indeed our life is work life. We get the primary lesson of work at home, which initiates us to work. What our parents do has a hidden, but the first and foremost, message for us for our work life. In what school they send us there is a remote plan for it. In their heart to heart they tell us what work they would like us to do. It may not be the

last word but it has an impact on what we think of doing in life. In our teens we prepare for it right-and-left. Yes, adult life is work life tooth and nail. It may be said that it is the major part i.e. two-third span of life that we live. Of course after taking leave from formal work life, till the last day of our life we are or we would like to be at work in our own ways. It is life vis-à-vis a worklife.

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Education enables us to prepare for it and be at it. What is taught for learning in school is meant for our preparation for work life. This is what we have been doing in the schools of 20th century. Education was meant for an armchair work culture of those times. The things were made tactically simple and straight. There was nothing that was mismatch between education in schools and work in life. The purpose was to have persons of the soil who could be part of the Raj. Many thanks and salutes to the people who lived and died to uproot Raj from our soil it is all history now. Times have changed. We are a free country. With varied castes, creeds, and religions we are one nation. We have a number of customs and traditions, fairs and festivals. It is the beauty of composite culture of our land. Our children in schools should be made aware of it. It should be one of the basics that they should learn in schools.

We are the citizens of India. Work and education are two sides of the same coin. It was not true in good old days only. It is an all-time truth. Education prepares children for work life of their times. It does not seem to be all like that today. This is one of the concerns of school education of day. This has long been a topic of discussion and debate. This has well been taken up by the Committees and Commissions of Education set up by the Government till date. Indeed it is a part of the National Policy on Education (NPE 1986) accepted by the Parliament. The revised (1992)

Programme of Action (POA) on NPE is the latest document on it. International Commission (1996) on Education (Delors' Commission) is a reminder to us. This is one of the issues that have been well dwelt upon in the *National Curriculum Framework for School Education* (NCFSE, 2000).

Schools are temples of learning for children. It is their preparation for life, i.e. work life. Of course some children have their own compulsions. They could also be at work when they are at studies. This is their part-time work before, after or even during the school hours. There are also children who cut short their school life as a whole and join work life whole time. This may not be of their own making and liking but they go in for it with no other way out before them. Yes, for some of them it is all work life after school life. For all these three categories of children, school education is work education for life. For them it is nothing less than vocational education. For others it is foundation education to learn more of work life in colleges and at other centres of higher learning. The things like that cannot be taken for granted as for now. Of course, this needs to be ensured in our system. Their work life should be made secure who are in the making of adults. This as a whole is the topic of guidance and counselling for vocational education in schools.

Guidance and Counselling

If we are asked what could be the secret of a happy and successful life? Indeed, the right answer to this

question is how do we take it and the way we live it. Much of it depends upon what guidance we could have for the purpose. It is our path and pace setter in life. It may be defined as the assistance or help that we need to have to enable us to make appropriate choices, plans and adjustments in life. For all of us it is education. It is not a part of education. It is education as a whole. At the most we could say guidance is meant to enable us to learn for all that education aims at. Yes, guidance stands by us to learn what is this life? how to prepare ourselves to live and work that could be joyful to us and helpful to others. We need be the motivated characters of action of this mode of life. We need to live it full of passion and devotion day in, day out. The children need this education, i.e. guidance in schools. We all need this guidance from womb to tomb.

In one form of guidance that we have we do not enter into action or activity and have it just by the way as the life goes. It is known as informal guidance. It even accrues to us that we may not be in the know of. The other form of guidance we have is when we are in action. This is when we work for the achievement of the aim of our involvement in any one activity in our day-to-day life. We call it as incidental guidance. It is always there whether we achieve or fail to achieve the purpose of our doing the things we do. Of course, the third form of formal guidance has a system. Just like informal and incidental forms

of guidance, this is not indirect. It is not common sense or general guidance. Rather, it is not purpose-specific. It is this guidance that enables us to make the best of a choice, plan or adjustment from the alternatives available. It helps us to find an answer to a question or the solution of a problem. It could be given and received oral or written. One may make a request. He could have it as a gesture of goodwill from someone. It may be with fee or free. It is suggestive by nature. It is not mandatory. We are free to have it or not and use it in full or a part of it or ignore it as we may decide on our own.

Counselling is one of the activities of the programme of guidance. We could say guidance is a programme and counselling is one part of it. Of course it is the nucleus of it. This makes us always to mention these two terms together. What really we mean by guidance is given and received in the process of counselling. It is face to face conference between the two persons — one (counselee) who needs guidance and the other (counsellor) who gives guidance. It is an interaction with a purpose between the counsellor and the counselee. It is indeed the net outcome of this is known as counselling vis-à-vis guidance.

Guidance is a programme of seven services. These are found in action in three stages of this programme. 1. *Preparatory stage*: the things are done to set a stage for giving guidance. It is the work of services that are known as Orientation, Individual

Inventory and General information service

2. *Action stage*: It is give and take of guidance. The sole single service that works in this stage is known as Counselling.

3. *Monitoring stage*: It is the follow-up stage. It takes care of the action taken on what guidance is given in counselling. The three services that work at this stage of guidance programme are known as Placement, Follow-up and Research-evaluation. Briefly said what is done to set the stage for counselling, what counselling is given and what that is done after that all combined together is known as a programme of guidance and counselling. It is a teamwork carried on under the leadership of a professional worker in the field. He is qualified and a trained guidance personnel. He has adolescent psychology as the subject of his specialisation at postgraduate level and above. In practice, he is best known as a counsellor.

Let us not enter into too much of things and talk simple. Education is said to be training for life. It is what that inspires us to have a creative way of life. It makes us wise. It empowers us to rely upon ourselves in thinking and doing and things in life. Of course it leads us to be at work that we can do to the best of our ability. Is it not the education that enables us to make appropriate choices, plans and adjustments at all the stages of our life? Yes, it does. It is guidance. It is very true that all education is guidance. At the same time we say education of the day is not found to serve the

purpose of guidance it is meant for that has made us to think about guidance in schools. Of course education and for that guidance is not meant for our simple literacy to know how to read and write. It is the development of our 3Qs: 1. *IQ-Intelligence quotient*. It is to know our hidden treasure within and work upon it. 2. *EQ-Emotional quotient*. It is to know our feelings. It is to know the feelings of others. It is to learn how to live nice and fine and be friendly with all others and 3. *SQ-Spiritual quotient*. It is about broadening horizons. It is in its transformative powers that SQ differs from IQ and EQ and is specific to humans. It governs creativity. It facilitates a dialogue between reason and emotion, mind and body. The development of these three Qs in each child is the concern of education. This is for what guidance needs to be given to the children without any exception whatsoever. There is no denying the fact that guidance in schools is available. This is informal and incidental guidance. It might have served the purpose of children of the yesterdays. It is not enough for the children of today. They need formal guidance and that they should have in the schools. It is obvious that if it were not made available to them in schools, they would have it from anyone and from anywhere. It could raise a question mark to the institution of school. And that may not be all right. Let us be very clear that children need guidance and it needs to be given to them in schools. They need a counsellor in each school. Till he

could be posted, the principal needs to act as a guidance worker. He needs to have the orientation of it. He is to be the counsellor for the students. He needs to counsel the teachers how they could be counsellors to their students. For quality education in schools, in their pre-service training, they should be trained for that. In-service teachers could be given refresher courses. The need of the hour is to make schools centres of guidance and counselling par excellence.

Vocational Education

UNESCO, in its recommendation of 1974 on Technical and Vocational Education, defined it as a:

'comprehensive term embracing those aspects of educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in the various sectors of economic and social life. Such an education would be an integral part of general education and a means of preparing for an occupational field and an aspect of continuing education.'

[Higher Secondary Education and its Vocationalisation, NCERT (1976, p. 9)]

The term Vocational Education in its broad sense as used in 1985 by the National Working Group on

Vocationalisation of Education is education and skill development at all levels from post-primary to tertiary education both through formal and non-formal programme. This is to link education with our job, vocational or professional i.e. work life. This has always been talked about. There is a mention of it even in pre-independence days. Ramamurti Committee in its review Report (1990, Part I, pp 2003-4) of the NPE, 1986 has made a brief account of it as:

'Wood's Despatch of 1854 advised that 'education in secondary schools should be practically useful to the people of India in their different spheres of life.' The Hunter Commission of 1882 gave specific attention to the provision of vocational education. It called for two divisions of higher schools — one providing access to universities and the other of a more practical character to equip the youth for commercial/non-literary pursuits. The Hartog Committee (1929) called for diversified curricula in the schools for diversion of more boys to industrial and commercial careers at the end of the middle stage, preparatory to special instruction in technical and industrial schools. The Sapru Committee (1934) advised vocational studies commencing after 11 years of education. The Abbot-Wood Report (1936-37) suggested a hierarchy of vocational institutions appropriate to the general.

education structure. The Sargent report (1944) recommended technical, commercial and art education for full time and part time students on adequate scales.'

We find that there had been a number of reports before 1947. There is a marked reference of vocational education in each one of them. This thought we have carried on even after Independence. In Free India to begin with University Education Commission (1948-9) recommended the opening of intermediate colleges at the end of Class X for giving vocational base to the students in the system of general education leading to university courses. Perhaps it all remained in black and white with no much of an action at the grassroots level. The Secondary Education Commission (1952-3) generally stressed the need for vocational education. Art and Craft was brought in schools. It could be said this was all a half-hearted follow-up action. Of course that could not stand the test of time. Education Commission (1964-66, p. 9) took a serious view of it. It had struck a forceful note as '*.. we visualise the future trend of school education to be fruitful mingling of general and vocational education — general education containing some elements of pre-vocational and technical education, and vocational education, in its turn, having an element of general education. In the kind of society in which we will be living increasingly in the coming years, a complete separation between the*

two will not only be undesirable but impossible'. It was pointed out that

- a. University degrees were not necessary for the majority of jobs at the middle levels which could be completely handled by vocationally well-trained higher secondary graduates,
- b. more than 50 per cent of the students dropping out of the high schools and embarking upon work without any professional competency,
- c. work experience is an essential element of purposeful education.

In the words of the Commission, '*Work experience is defined as participation in productive work in school, in the home, in a workshop, on a farm, in a factory or in any other productive situation'*. It is an attempt to bring world of work and world of study at one place. It is seen as an effective educational tool. It helps to make distinction between intellectual and manual work less marked. It curbs the evil of social stratification in the bud. It works for social cohesion. It could make the entry of youth into the world of work and employment easier by enabling them to adjust themselves to it. It generates in them the habit of hard and responsible work. They learn work ethos. They develop their insight into the use of science and technology at work. Of course it can contribute to the national productivity as a whole. The Commission remarks '*In our country a revolutionary experiment was launched by Mahatma Gandhi in the*

form of basic education. The concept of work-experience is essentially similar. It may be described as a redefinition of his educational thinking in terms of society launched on the road to industrialisation'

The National Commission on Education 1968 accepted work-experience as the core component of education in the country at all levels. It led to the launching of the programme of vocationalisation of education in 1976-7. The NPE-1986 gave a new impetus to it. In pursuance of the policy, the national efforts were guided by a Centrally Sponsored Scheme (CSS) that came into operation with effect from February 1988. As a constituent unit of NCERT, the Central Institute of Vocational Education was set up. After the name of a renowned freedom fighter from Chhattisgarh it was named as Pandit Sunderlal Sharma Central Institute of Vocational Education (PSSCIVE). It started functioning at Bhopal from July 1993. The principal function of the Institute is to provide Research and Development and technical support for realisation of the national goals of vocational education.

The concept of vocationalisation has been outlined in the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 in its paras 5-13. It has been linked to secondary education. It is written as: *'Vocationalisation through specialised institutions or through the refashioning of secondary education can, at this stage, provide valuable manpower for economic growth.'* The salient features

of vocationalisation as reflected in the NPE are:

- (a) The introduction of systematic, well-planned and rigorously implemented programmes of vocational education is crucial in the proposed educational reorganisation. These elements are meant to enhance individual employability, to reduce the mismatch between the demand and supply of skilled manpower, and to provide alternative for those pursuing higher education without particular interest or purpose.
- (b) Vocational education will be a distinct stream, intended to prepare students for identified occupations spanning several areas of activity. These courses will ordinarily be provided after the secondary stage, but keeping the scheme flexible, they may also be made available after class VIII. In the interests of integrating vocational education better with their facilities the Industrial Training Institutes will also conform to the pattern.
- (c) An emphasis in vocational education will also be on development of attitudes, knowledge and skills for entrepreneurship and self-employment.
- (d) The establishment of vocational courses or institutions will be the responsibility of the Government as well as employers in the public and private sectors; the Government will, however, take special steps to cater to the needs

of women, rural and tribal students and the deprived sections of the society. Programmes will also be started for the handicapped.

- (e) Graduates of vocational courses will be given opportunities, under predetermined conditions, for professional growth, career improvement and lateral entry into courses of general, technical and professional education through appropriate bridge courses.
- (f) It is proposed the vocational courses cover 10 per cent of higher secondary students by 1990 and 25 per cent by 1995.

National Curriculum Framework for School Education (NCFSE 2000) has spelt out what is what of vocational education in schools. This follows the guidelines in letter and spirit given in the NPE, 1986 (Revised 1992). It has noted with a concern that as against the set target of 25 per cent students, only five per cent of their enrolment in the vocational courses could be achieved. There could be many reasons for our failure at this front. Two of these reasons may be pinpointed as: At the first place, we could say that message has not gone well or received well. Of course, even if we take that message has been well taken the same could not be said for the follow-up action. It was Work-experience. It was Socially Useful Productive Work (SUPW). What is meant to all was that it was one of the activities that we undertake in schools. What was all said and done was very casual. Nothing was taken seriously and done seriously

on this count. The emphasis should have been on work as a medium of education. It should have been in the content. It should have been given a due place in the process of education at all levels. In the scheme of things in the Curriculum Framework it has been taken as Work Education. At page 69 it may be read as '*Work Education is viewed as purposive and meaningful manual work organised as integral part of the learning process and resulting into goods or services useful to the community besides the pleasure of self-fulfillment. It should be an essential component at all stages of education and be provided through well-structured and graded programme.*' The second salient reason for the slow pace and last place of vocational education in our system may be stated that as a distinct stream it was taken to mean only for those children who were found low achievers in the academic stream. This widespread notion proved to be a stumbling block for a worthwhile progress of vocational education in our schools. To set the things in the right perspective the Curriculum Framework (p. 89) envisages, Vocational Education for All. It is read as '*Up to the secondary stage, provisions exist for giving the students an opportunity under work education. There is also a provision for an alternative scheme of pre-vocational education programmes at the secondary stage. It is followed by generic vocational courses in the academic stream and also the vocational courses at the higher secondary stage.*'

In the curriculum Work Education has been kept for all and at all levels of school programme. It has been seen as a part of the system. Attempt has been made to have it both ways. It is one subject. It is a medium of learning other subjects. The things have been put in order because of which education could not make its rightful place in schools. In Work Education, major categories of work which need to be specifically stressed have been listed as: *a. work pertaining to needs of the individual such as health, hygiene, clothing, cleanliness, etc; b. work in home to be performed as a growing member of the family; c. work in the classroom, school and in the out-of-school activities integrated with school life as well as learning of other subjects such as physical education, art education, social studies, science and other specifically designed to foster certain objectives of work education; d. work in the community focussed on self-less service or seva; and e. work relating to vocational development, production, social usefulness and exploration of the world of work*

It is proposed to give children first lesson of work ethics in their primary classes. They will have work experience at the right earnest. The purpose is to make them free from any kind of work inhibitions. This is to foster the spirit of doing work by hand. They should have dignity of labour. Of course it is built in the joyful activity based teaching. At secondary stage, pre-vocational courses will have activities that will

help the children make a choice of vocational courses at higher secondary level. This is to enable them to make choice of vocational stream as a matter of their first choice. It should help them to enter into the world of work. It should open opportunities for the children to have wage employment and self-employment. The changed scenario in the world of work expects not the trained but the trainable children from the schools. Yes, academic stream has not been kept free from work education. There is a scheme of Generic Vocational Course (GVC) for them. It cuts across various vocations. It aims at the development of employment related generic skills needed by an educated work force regardless of the work they do in life. The Curriculum for managing this system has rightly felt the need of Guidance and Counselling in schools. At page 124, it may be read as:

'Diversification in terms of streams and sub-streams offers a wide range of options for students at the higher secondary stage ... This calls for effective counselling and guidance services for the benefit of adolescent students who are to be helped to select streams, courses and units in such a way that they conform to their psychological needs, attitudes, abilities and aptitudes ... Ideally each higher secondary school is to be provided with a qualified counsellor... In course of time, a career teacher for each secondary school will have to be provided.'

Work is worship. It is the essence of life. Education prepares for it. It is vocational education that does the needful. It is the need of the day. National Policy on Education 1986 (Revised 1992) has laid a special stress upon it.

National Curriculum Framework for School Education (NCFSE 2000) has followed it in letter and spirit. It has spelt out Work Education at all levels of school education. It is meant for all the children. At secondary stage pre-vocational courses have been outlined. At the higher secondary stage there are two streams: Academic Stream and Vocational Stream. Students can join any one stream of their interest and aptitudes. To meet with the demand

of employment market the students of academic stream are given generic vocational course. They are prepared as trainable in the work life of their choice. Yes, vocational stream prepares students for self-employment and wage employment.

Vocational education links education with work. This was brought guidance centre-stage in the schools. The students may not be able to do without it at secondary and higher secondary levels. Leaving aside for other things, they need guidance to make a choice between two streams available to them. Indeed, in our quest of quality education, there is an urgent need of guidance and counselling for vocational education in schools.

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Effective Integrated Teaching Programmes

Collaborative Consultation Skills for Teachers

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Abstract

Regular teachers, special educators, parents and other professionals need to work together and the teachers need to be trained in technical skills along with interaction skills for successful integration of special needs children in regular schools. There is a need to reform the existing teacher training programmes to incorporate the training of collaborative consultation skills. The paper analyses the most specific literature related to the competencies needed by general and special education teacher for collaboration. This should help the teacher educators and planners to provide input into the teacher education programmes.

Keywords: Integrated Teaching, Collaborative Consultation skills, Interaction skills, Interpersonal skills.

INTEGRATION of students with disabilities into regular school system is becoming a major trend worldwide. India is no exception. On 1 January, 1996, the Indian Parliament passed, 'The Persons with Disabilities Act' which has placed a very high priority on the integration

of students with disabilities into regular school programmes. This requires regular educators, special educators, parents and other paraprofessionals (speech therapist, physical therapist, etc.) to work together in providing effective educational programmes for

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students with disabilities. However, little research has been conducted on the competencies needed by general and special education teachers in fostering this collaborative environment. The purpose of this paper is to identify and analyse the most specific literature related to competencies needed by general and special education teacher for collaboration.

Definition of Collaborative Consultation

'Collaborative consultation' is "an interactive process that enables people with diverse expertise to generate creative solutions to mutually defined problems" (Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin, 1986, P. 1). In the process of collaborative consultation usually there are three persons, or more than three persons. They are: Consultant, Mediator and Target. The Target typically is a student with some type of problem, the Mediator is usually a regular classroom teacher, and the Consultant may be a special educator, speech therapist, principal or the like. The Consultant shares the information or strategies with the Mediator, who then works with the Target.

Characteristics of Collaborative Consultation has some very important characteristics. These are:

- Team members believe that all participants, including students, possess unique and needed expertise (Idol, *et al.*, 1986)
- Team members engage in frequent, face-to-face interactions (Idol, *et al.*, 1986).
- Team members distribute leadership responsibilities, instead of one person acting as a leader throughout the consultation process (Idol, *et al.*, 1986).
- Team members share responsibility to make decisions and they are equally accountable to decisions made (Friend and Cook, 1992).
- Collaboration is based on voluntary relationship (Friend and Cook, 1992) and the person engaging in collaboration must have the right to accept or reject the ideas generated (Gutkin and Curtis, 1990).

Essential Collaborative Consultation Skills

For the purpose of this paper collaborative consultation skills have been classified in two major categories:

1. Interaction skills are the artistic or affective bases of collaborative consultation.
2. Technical skills are the scientific or knowledge bases of collaborative consultation.

In order to be a successful consultant, one must have effective skills in both interaction and scientific or knowledge areas.

Interaction Skills

Interaction skills are skills that can be classified into many sub-skills. Each sub-skill, though described separately in this paper, is not mutually exclusive and one sub-skill may overlap with another. Our intent is not the

classification but the identification of essential skills:

1. Effective communication skills
2. Effective interpersonal skills
3. Effective problem solving skills
4. Other skills.

Effective Communication Skills

Effective communication is one of the highly ranked collaborative consultation skills (West and Cannon, 1988). Effective communication is "a condition in which the message perceived and responded to be the receiver corresponds to the one meant by the sender". It consists of both verbal and non-verbal communication. In a major review of the eight best teacher training programmes in the United States and the six Service Delivery Models i.e. Pre-Referral Intervention System, Teacher Assistance Team, Consulting Teachers, Resource/Consulting Teachers, Special Education Resource Teachers and Resource Teacher (West and Idol, 1987b), interactive communication was found to be the core skill included in all of the teacher training programmes and in the three out of the six Service Delivery Models. A number of communication skills had gained increased attention in the context of collaborative consultation. These are: (i) Listening Effectively; (ii) Effective use of non-verbal communication skills; (iii) Using appropriate language and vocabulary; (iv) Giving and receiving feedback; (v) Effective interviewing skills; (vi) Written language skills.

- (i) *Listening effectively* (Carr, 1985, Heron and Harris, 1993, Idol *et al.*, 1986; Jordan, 1994; Lowenthal, 1992; West and Idol, 1987b)

Effective listening is one of the fundamental communication skills. It involves both active and passive listening. Passive listening is performed by remaining silent but still remaining involved in the interaction by demonstrating attending behaviours and giving words of encouragement. When actively listening, the consultant makes comments, asks questions, and shares his or her own experiences.

- (ii) *Effective use of non-verbal communication skills* (Heron and Harris, 1993; Rainforth, Yourk and Mac Donald, 1992; West and Idol, 1987)

Use of non-verbal communication is essential to gain maximum benefit from the process of consultation. Non-verbal messages are more likely to be genuine and are not as easily controlled as words and they can express feelings that are too difficult or disturbing to state (Heron and Harris, 1993). Wolfgang (1984) (in Jordan, 1994) has devised a useful acronym for the non-verbal qualities of communication that convey credibility to the client, and is persuasive. He called it SOFTNESS.

- S Stance—face the client, lean forward slightly.
- O Openness—hands upturned, arms and body relaxed.
- F Facial expression—positive, relaxed, a smile if appropriate.
- T Touch, e.g. a handshake.

N Nod—shows consultant is understanding and listening.

E Eye contact—fairly steady eye contact indicates that the consultant is listening, but staring should be avoided.

S Speech—moderate pace, warm, positive voice tone.

S Space—Interpersonal distance. Arm's length is the neutral zone.

Jordan (1994) has emphasised that while using non-verbal communication one should be sensitive to the cultural difference of the mediator. Sometimes instead of facilitating communication they may hinder it.

(iii) *Using appropriate language and vocabulary* (Heron and Kimball, 1988; Idol, 1986; West and Cannon, 1988; West and Idol, 1987b).

Appropriate use of language and vocabulary has the potential to increase shared meaning. The consultant should be able to describe the programme in simple terms and always in the primary language of the mediator. If any new term is used, it should be described in a way that the mediator understands what is really meant. It should be emphasised here that the greater the use of the jargon and inappropriate vocabulary, the greater the chance that the consultation will fail (Heron and Kimball, 1980; Rainforth et al., 1992).

(iv) *Giving and receiving feedback* (Idol, et al., 1986; Luckner, 1991; West and Cannon, 1988; West and Idol, 1987b)

Giving and receiving feedback is an essential component of collaborative consultation. Feedback regarding good and/or bad behaviour should be provided in the most constructive way. It should be specific, immediate, positive, frequent and above all appropriate. The consultant and the mediator should always remember that "there are no good or bad people or techniques but rather areas of strength or effectiveness and areas of strength or effectiveness and areas that need improvement" (Idol, et al., 1986).

(v) *Effective interviewing skills* (Friend, 1984; Idol, 1986; Luckner, 1991; West and Cannon, 1988; West and Idol, 1987b)

Effective interviewing skills are essential in gaining more information, sharing information, expressing and exploring the feeling of the mediator about working together. In addition, they help the consultant to solve problems and to formulate appropriate future action plans for the benefit of a target student. Effective interviewing also helps to increase the shared information base and willingness of the consultant to work with mediator (Idol, et al., 1986).

(vi) *Written language skills* (West and Cannon, 1988; West and Idol, 1987b)

Effective written language communication skills are equally essential. The consultant should be able to write the necessary information in the easiest form so that it can be

understood and used by the mediator as and when required for implementing the plan.

Effective Interpersonal Skills

Interpersonal skills have gained more and more attention in the field of consultation. These skills are included in five out of the eight best teacher training programmes in the United States, and two out of the six Service Delivery Models (West and Idol, 1987b). These skills are also ranked very highly by teachers of hearing handicapped students (Luckner, 1991) by both regular and special educators (Idol and Cannon, 1988) and by regular teachers, resource teachers and principals (Friends, 1984).

- (i) *Conflict resolution skills* (Friends, 1984, Heron and Harris, 1993; Idol, *et al.*, 1984; Jordan, 1994; Luckner, 1991; Morsink, Thomas, Correa, 1991; West and Cannon, 1988; West and Idol, 1987)

Conflict resolution is one of the most essential skills needed by teachers. Effective conflict resolution requires listening to the other person and looking at the problem from the other persons' perspective. Conflict resolution may result in positive or negative responses depending on how effectively the skills of conflict resolution are used. Morsink, *et al.* (1991) have emphasised that if a positive response is made to the conflict, people may be encouraged to search out effective ways of dealing with it and result in an improved

organisational functioning. However, if a negative response is made to a conflict it results in hostility and destructiveness on the part of group members.

- (ii) *Willingness to share ideas and materials* (Idol, *et al.*, 1986; Luckner, 1991; West and Idol, 1987; West and Cannon, 1988)

If collaboration has to be successful, collaborators need to share ideas and materials. Sharing ideas and materials enhance co-operation and friendship and should be reinforced by each member in a collaborative team. The consultant should share information about their own skills in assessment, instruction and evaluation so that teachers (mediators) know when and how to request their assistance (Idol, *et al.*, 1986). In addition, the consultant should also demonstrate a willingness to learn from others if they want others to learn from them (Montogeny, 1980 as cited in Idol, *et al.*, 1986). Attitudes like 'I know every thing', and 'This is mine' may hinder collaboration.

- (iii) *Group leadership skills* (Idol, *et al.*, 1986; West and Idol, 1987b)

Leadership skills are very crucial component of collaboration. A leader in a group should not be determined by the present working status such as principal acting as a leader but it should be situational. When a programme for a child is being developed the special educator may take a leadership role. However, when implementation is discussed this role

should be transferred to the classroom teacher. We should also consider the leadership skills of mediators or classroom teachers. If mediators (regular educators) do not have enough leadership skills then we should provide them different levels of support to take a leadership role (Idol, *et al.*, 1986).

- (iv) *Treat others with respect* (Gear and Gable, 1979; Idol, *et al.*, 1986)

Throughout the consultation process, the consultant and the mediator should treat each other with respect. This can be achieved by sharing information, listening to others and joint problem solving. It is especially important that consultants show respect for the mediator by keeping information that mediator has disclosed as confidential. Regular classroom educators should create a classroom climate of acceptance. They should promote acceptance of individual differences among all the children.

Effective Problem Solving Skills

(Friends, 1984; Heron and Harris, 1993; Idol, *et al.*, 1986; Lilly, 1974 in Crisci, 1981; Luckner, 1991; Rainforth, *et al.*, 1992; West and Cannon, 1988; West & Idol, 1987b; West and Idol, 1990)

Collaborative problem solving is an activity that is central to the success of inclusive schooling. Johnson, 1987 (as cited in Rainforth, *et al.*, 1992) have described problem solving as an

activity that is central to the success of inclusive schooling. Johnson and Johnson, 1987 (as cited in Rainforth, *et al.*, 1992) have described problem solving as a systematic tool used to guide the process of collaborative consultation. Graden and Bauer (1993) have emphasised that to be most effective in problem solving, components of both approaches, collaboration and problem solving, must be used simultaneously. Problem solving involves various steps (adapted from Gutkin and Curtis, 1990, Johnson and Johnson, 1987; West, *et al.*, 1988).

Step 1. Define the problem: The first step is to define the problem in observable, measurable and objective terms so that all team members have mutual understanding of the problem.

Step 2. Analyse the problem: The next step is to analyse the problem to understand the causes of the problem. It is always good to find manageable causes of the problem.

Step 3. Formulate alternative strategies: The third step is to brainstorm alternative solutions to a problem. Alternative solutions should be based on the analysis of problem

Step 4. Selection of strategies: After examining a number of strategies, few strategies have to be selected based on the availability of resources, efficacy of strategies and ease with which teacher can implement them.

Step 5. Implementation of strategies: Once strategies are selected,

responsibility of implementing them is incumbent on both the consultant and the mediator. The consultant usually assumes a modelling role that phases out as quickly as the mediator gains the confidence to implement the strategy on his/her own.

Step 6. Evaluation: During the final stage the success of alternative strategies to solve the problem is evaluated. Based on the results of evaluation, it is decided whether to continue, redesign or discontinue the programme.

Other Skills

There are few other skills that are found essential for collaboration. Research suggests that both the consultant and the mediator need to be assertive, but at the same time they should be adaptive and flexible (West and Idol, 1987b). They should be willing to take responsibility and should have good decision-making skills. Additionally, consultants must be able to manage their time effectively to accommodate a variety of duties (Heron and Harris, 1992). Consultants must have a knowledge of consultation theory/models, training and practice (West and Cannon, 1988). They should be competent to train teachers, parents and school personnel (Friend, 1984). They should be skilled to mobilise resources to assist in meeting the educational needs of students with disabilities (West and Cannon, 1988). In addition, teachers should have skills to manage their own stress

if they want to work effectively in the role of a consultant (Luckner, 1991).

Technical Skills

Technical skills are as important for consultants as interaction skills for collaboration. Some frequently cited technical skills are:

1. Knowledge of applied behaviour analysis
 2. Techniques for assessment of a student.
 3. Techniques for individualising instruction.
 4. Knowledge of educational material.
 5. Knowledge of cultural diversity.
 6. Ability to explain the learning process.
 7. Ability to monitor and evaluation.
 8. Other technical skills.
- (i) *Knowledge of applied behaviour analysis and behaviour modification methods* (Cannon, Idol, and West, 1992; Gear and Gable, 1979; Heron and Harris, 1993; Idol, *et al.*, 1986; Idol, 1993; Idol, Leyser and Abrams, 1986; Lowenthal, 1992; Luckner, 1991; West and Idol, 1987b)

The knowledge of and an ability to put into practice the principles of applied behaviour analysis, is ranked very high in most of the investigations conducted to find out essential consultation skill (Idol-Maesta and Ritter, 1985 as cited in West and Cannon, 1988; Leyser and Abram, 1986; Luckner, 1991; West and Idol, 1987b). A good practical knowledge of

applied behaviour analysis is essential for problem solving in both academic and behavioural domains. Consultants are often asked to assist with increasing wide range of responses and/or decreasing inappropriate responses of students with disabilities. They can do this job efficiently only if they are skilled in the application of these principles and procedures.

- (ii) *Techniques for assessments of students* (Carri, 1985; Friend, 1984, Heron and Harris, 1993, Leyser and Abrams, 1986; Lowenthal, 1992, Luckner, 1991; Rainforth, *et al.*, 1992, West and Idol, 1987b)

Another very important skill for the consultant is knowledge of assessment methods. The consultant should have a knowledge of standardised tests and criteria-referenced tests. He/she should also know how to conduct the assessment of the learning environment of a given student. The consultant should be competent to identify curricular goals for each student (Lowenthal, 1992). A good knowledge of these skills helps consultant to conduct an assessment of a given child and explain the meaning of the results to the regular educators in the most practical terms.

- (iii) *Techniques for individualising instruction* (Cannon, Idol and West, 1992; Carri, 1985; Gear and Gable, 1979, Idol, *et al.*, 1986; Lowenthal, 1992; Luckner, 1991; West and Idol, 1987b)

Students with learning and behaviour disorders require individualisation of instruction in order to effectively meet these goals. The regular classroom teacher is not fully equipped to do this job and is often dependant on the consultant. The consultant needs not only to develop individualised programmes but also to demonstrate the skills to implement the programme. A knowledge of co-operative learning and peer tutoring techniques is also important for the consultant in order to structure learning that has the component of individualisation but is equally effective for students with and without disabilities (Heron and Harris, 1993; Lloyd, *et al.*, 1988; Lowenthal, 1992). The consultant also needs to be proficient in using instructional strategies such as direct instruction (West and Idol, 1987), task analysis and mainstreaming strategies (Carri, 1985; Idol, *et al.*, 1986).

- (iv) *Knowledge of educational materials* (Heron and Harris, 1993; Lowenthal, 1992, Luckner, 1991, West and Idol, 1987b)

There is a high emphasis placed on consultants to have an understanding of suitable educational materials that could be used to facilitate learning of students with disabilities. They should have an ability to adapt to the educational material used with students without disabilities so that it can be used with equal efficiency with students who have a disability

- (v) *Knowledge of cultural diversity* (Heron and Harris, 1992, Idol, 1993; Lowenthal, 1992; Morsink, *et al.*, 1991)

It is important for consultants to learn how to accept cultural and linguistic diversity. Consultants should be sensitive to various cultural differences. Sensitisation to cultural differences must be followed by action and implementation. In addition, consultants should be skilled to develop and establish positive and respectful relationships with families (Lowenthal, 1992). Although the benefits of understanding cultural and linguistic diversities are the improvement of educational and related services programmes for all students, the consequences of a lack of this understanding are inaccurate labelling of students as 'handicapped' and their misplacement in special education programmes.

- (vi) *Ability to explain the learning process* (Idol, *et al.*, 1986; West and Idol, 1987b)

Regular class educators have often shown curiosity about the learning process of the students with disabilities. They want to know how these students learn and whether their learning is different from their normal counterparts. The consultant should be in a position to answer these questions in practical and simple terms

- (vii) *Ability to monitor and evaluate* (Cannon, Idol and West, 1992, Lilly, 1974, in Crisoli, 1979)

Both the consultant and the mediator should be proficient in evaluating learners' outcomes and measuring students' progress. They need to have a practical knowledge of systematically evaluating interventions so as to determine the effectiveness of a particular programme

- (viii) *Other technical skills*

Knowledge of curriculum in the regular classroom (West and Idol, 1987b; Luckner, 1991; Heron and Harris, 1993) conducting in-service workshops (West and Idol, 1987b; Luckner, 1991) are considered essential technical skills for consultants. They should have a knowledge of the latest technology in the field of special education (West and Idol, 1987b). As the life of persons with disabilities is significantly affected by legislation and litigation, a consultant should also keep himself/herself abreast with all such legislation and litigation in order to deliver up-to-date services (Heron and Harris, 1993).

Conclusion

There is enough evidence to indicate that in order to be an effective consultant, he/she needs technical skills such as (i) knowledge of applied behaviour analysis (ii) knowledge of individualising instruction, (iii) knowledge of assessment methods, and interaction skills such as effective listening conflict resolution skills, problem solving skills, interviewing skills, etc. Despite this evidence most teacher training programmes in India and elsewhere train special teachers

in technical skills and very little attention is given to interaction skills (West and Idol, 1987b); Villa, *et al.*, 1996; Pugach and Johnson, 1989; Luckner, 1991). The teachers prepared in this process are not fully qualified to act as effective consultants. If we want special teachers to perform the role of consultant efficiently, we need

to train them adequately. There is a need to reframe the existing teacher training programme to incorporate the training of collaborative consultation skills. Equally important is training of in-service professionals in these skills, if we want state-of-the-art services from regular class teachers for the learner with special needs

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Book Review

Best Practices in Open and Distance Education Editor V.S. Prasad
Professor C. Ram Reddy Research Academy of Distance Education (GRADE) Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University, Prof. G. Ram Reddy Marg, Road No. 46, Jubilee Hills, Hyderabad. Andhra Pradesh India
Price Rs. 300.00 US \$ 30.00 £ 20.00

We have overcome the debate "Is distance mode of education worth doing?" The distance mode has no longer been looked down upon by the interview boards. Setting up of the national level university, the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) brought changes in the minds of people to accept the fact that distance education with good quality would probably serve the purpose of educating all in higher education in countries like India. The book under review is the compilation of the major papers presented in the national conference on "Best Practices in Open and Distance Education" at the Dr. Ambedkar Open University, Hyderabad. Being the first open university in the country, the university played a pioneering role in making the distance learning mode favourable.

The book has seven presentations of the conference with the valedictory address titled *Best Practices: Then and Now* by Gajaraj Dhanarajan, the CEO and Director General of the Commonwealth of Learning,

Vancouver, a pioneer in open learning of the commonwealth countries. The presidential address by V.S. Prasad on *Best Practices in Open and Distance Education. Problems and Concerns* speaks of the best in question. What is best is always an elusive question. It is normative, contextual and relative concept. Different stakeholders in the system may be looking at the best from different perspectives. For some the students the best may be the one, which helps them in getting good grades in examination. For governments, in a resource crunch situation, the cost-effective may be the best. Academics may look at it from the knowledge perspective. Employers may be looking at it from the suitability of the product for job requirements. Institutions may be looking for more measurable, affordable and acceptable criteria of best. Some other may be looking at the best as that which earns more money. All these perceptions may be relevant in different ways. We may have to integrate them all and develop parameters or benchmarks of best practices.", argues the author.

C. Subba Rao looks towards integration of systems of learning for excellence in higher education. The inaugural address of the conference, Rao makes it a point to stress for integration systems of learning, "You have no other go except to integrate yourself into other systems of learning

The corporate classroom as such is available. New locations of knowledge are available. So the question of being independence, isolated, marginal is not relevant. The sooner we try to annex newer areas, extend out hands of expertise and friendship to other universities in the state as such would be the better, I would plead for a wholesome and holistic integration of all systems. Let there be no barriers as such in the border less world of life long learning", concludes Suba Rao.

Ram G. Takwale takes the issues of managing paradigm shift in parameters and benchmarks for best practices in open and distance education. He postulates the seven main processes and practices that will remain invariant in all modes of education. They are teaching, learning, evaluation, creating knowledge resources, developing infrastructure facilities; creating educational environment and managing education. Discussing the quality consideration in convergent E-education, Takwale explains the processes of education will cover: Registration and personalization of a learner, educational services repository, learning systems, educational services providers (ESP), network management, learner evaluation management, maintenance, development and production system, inventory systems for various on-line services and total quality management. The above mentioned themes are discussed in detail without taking much space.

Resources for Best Practices by Usha Vyasulu Reddi could be beneficial for those looking for a solution to the problems of resources crunch. The major resources areas, the author tries to cover are system resources, knowledge resources, financial resources, physical and technological resources, leadership resources, etc. It would be relevant to quote from the conclusions of the author, "Today, things have changed and there is both individual and collective wisdom all around. These are other experiences and case studies to guide us, other institutions that have walked the same road before and we can learn from what they have achieved. But to me, many of the resources are internal to us, to our minds, to our institutions and to our methods. If India is known for its space resources, it is not because we had the best of individual talent. It is because we used the best of talents with the managerial effectiveness of intellect and teacher's work".

Lata Pillai has gone into the question of *Quality Assurance and Best Practices*. Beginning with the issue of the information exploration, the author goes on to the problem of quality assurance for which the accreditation of institutions becomes imperative. She explains the process of accreditation as fostering excellence thorough the development of criteria and guidelines for assessing effectiveness, Encouraging improvement through ongoing self-study and planning, ensuring external

constituents that a program has clearly defined goals and appropriate objectives, maintains faculty and facilities to attain them, demonstrates it is accomplishing them, and has the prospect of continuing to do so, provides advice and counsel to new and established programs in the accrediting process and ensures that programmes receive sufficient support and are free of external influence that may impede their effectiveness and their freedom of inquiry. The characteristics of best practices have been enlisted as: Innovative, Make a sustainable effect, have a sustainable effect, have the potential for replication, generated within the educational community, may be local and culture specific, is the basis for decision making and survival strategies, may not be systematically documented and best practice are dynamic and based on innovation, adaptation and experimentation.

The author has also presented a few case studies. One of them is *Kerala education grid*. With the vision of quality education to all students independent of the college they are studying, the Grid has made efforts to provide internet to colleges, digital library, online courseware, online examination, etc. The appendix of this chapter also presents the benchmarks for various level and stages. This includes: institutions support benchmarks, course development benchmarks, teaching / learning benchmarks, course structure benchmarks, student support

benchmarks, faculty support benchmarks evaluation and assessment benchmarks

In his assessment on *Adaptation and adaptation of Best Practices in Open and Distance Education*, M.M. Ansari analysed the best practices in open distance learning. The major policy initiatives, systematic design and development of courses, media for teaching and learning, student's support services, management and finance, are taken for discussion in-depth. The section under the criteria for adoption / adaptation of good practices provides an insight for the reader to know about the goals and missions, internal quality control and innovation, educational excellence and relevance of programmes, strategic planning for institutional development, cost-efficiencies of programmes and so on.

V N. Rajasekharan Pillai has dealt with the promotion of best practices in open and distance learning through participation in the NAAC's accreditation process. Describing processes of the accreditation of institutions by the National Accreditation and Assessment Council (NAAC) in India, Pillai gives an over view of the situation in the country. The points raised are: (i) the most basic standard is that the faculty must retain academic control (ii) teaching must be prepared to meet the special requirements of teaching at a distance (iii) course design should be shaped to potential of the medium (iv) students must fully understand course

requirements (v) close personal interaction must be maintained (vi) class size should be getting through normal faculty channels (vii) course should cover all material (viii) experimentation with a broad variety of subjects should be encouraged (ix) research opportunities must be provided (x) students assessment should be comparable (xi) evaluation of distance course works should be undertaken at all levels.

Gajraj Dhanarajan's valedictory address of the conference "Best Practices : Then and Now" presents the state of distance education practices in the past, in the present and looking to the future. Divided into two parts the address has taken major issues and concerns of learning for achieving learning through distance mode. While explaining what makes an open campus, Dhanarajan lists the major features as: (i) an aspiration in principle, at least, to balance inequalities between age, gender and social groups in terms of educational access, (ii) attempts to offer a second chance' to those who may have missed out on earlier opportunities; (iii) provisions for the efficient and speedy training for targeted groups; (iv) expanding the capacity for education in new areas; (v) extending education beyond barriers of space and time; (vi) developing multiple competencies through recurrent and continuing education; and (vii) allowing for learning to take place parallel to work and social obligations.

The valedictory address also speaks of infrastructure for learners' needs to bring a more imaginative and client responsive curriculum. The part two of the address, *Helping to Succeed in Learning* examines the best practices as which applies to the administrative culture under which the following are dealt with (i) information to students, (ii) as assessment of readiness to participate, (iii) web site information, (iv) call centres, (v) registration collection of tuition and fees, (vi) books stores students record management, (vii) financial aid. This part also includes best practices as it applies to technology environment and best practices as it applies to teaching.

This book could be called a timely publication as open distance learning in education particularly in higher education, has come to stay as equal alternative to the formal education. The themes addressed are of much relevance to personnel (both academic and administrative) working in open distance learning mode and also to the dual mode universities for adopting or adapting the best practices discussed in the book. The book could find a place in a good collection of the libraries in the colleges, universities and also research institutions in education. It will also make a good read for researchers in open distance learning.

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New Delhi

CONSTITUTION OF INDIA

Part IV A

Fundamental Duties of Citizens

ARTICLE 51A

Fundamental Duties – It shall be the duty of every citizen of India —

- (a) to abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem;
- (b) to cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom,
- (c) to uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India,
- (d) to defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so;
- (e) to promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women,
- (f) to value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture;
- (g) to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, wildlife and to have compassion for living creatures;
- (h) to develop the scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform,
- (i) to safeguard public property and to abjure violence,
- (j) to strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement.
- (k) who is a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years

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